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Comments.

THE Supplement contained in this issue summarizes the proceedings of a Conference of rural teachers and others held at Hawes, Wensleydale. It is published in *The Athenæum* in the hope that it will strengthen the interest of readers in the problems of rural education, and lead to the arrangement of further conferences. The Secretary of *The Athenæum* Literature Department will be glad to answer inquiries on the question.

WE extend to our readers best wishes for the fulfilment of their hopes during 1918. As the War draws nearer its close, the public mind will be more and more turned towards the problems of the future, and those who have the energy and the opportunity to devote themselves to questions of Reconstruction may perform a great service to the community. The object of The Athenaum is to provide a rallying-point for democratic interests and a forum for the discussion both of the wider aspects of Reconstruction and of practical proposals. Every day that passes renders such discussion more necessary, if the period after the War is not to be one of chaos and confusion, lacking in purpose and direction. Laws have already been passed which affect the future. Such, for example, is the Corn Production Act. Bills are under discussion, perhaps the most important at the moment being the Representation of the People Bill. Schemes are also under discussion, as, for example, the Report on the Supply of Electric Power. The Ministry of Reconstruction is now established as the department of State specially concerned with considering after-war problems. This increasing volume of activity does not relieve the public of its responsibilities. Rather does it increase the need for watchful criticism and constant discussion. Most of all is it important that public opinion should determine the tone and temper of future policy, and formulate the ideals to be pursued. It is a welcome sign that organizations and societies of all kinds are directing the attention of their members to Reconstruction. Amongst groups of people in civil life, amongst soldiers in hospitals and camps, discussion is simmering, and the demand for knowledge increasing. This is all to the good, and every effort should be made to extend the area and scope of discussion by means of lectures, conferences, classes, and literature. Readers of The Athenæum are invited to make suggestions as to how the paper can best be used to assist towards these ends.

Public interest has been really aroused during the past few weeks in the question of our war aims, or rather our peace aims. Lord Lansdowne's letter led to a regrettable outburst of passion which has in no way helped the national cause. Mr. Asquith's speech at Birmingham gave qualified support to Lord Lansdowne. The House of Commons before the recess plainly showed the strength of the movement favourable to a clear definition of the general terms upon which alone peace is possible. Mr. Lloyd George's speeches at Gray's Inn and in the House were a call for complete victory, and not a statement of peace aims. In the meantime the Labour Party has issued in a revised form its memorandum on war aims, and the Conference which met in London on Dec. 28 and 29 approved it. In general this document is a sound statement, and though it may please neither jingoes nor pacificists, it probably represents the views of the great body of middle opinion. No one who reads the signs of the times aright can fail to believe that peace has come much nearer during the past few weeks.

Events in Russia are in a state of rapid flux, and it is well to suspend judgment as to the future. It may, however, be pointed out that the happenings of the past few months have not proved the Revolution a failure. What might have occurred had the Romanoff regime continued none can say with any certainty. It is true that the course of events has thrown a heavy burden upon the Allies and added to their military difficulties. In consequence the Russian Revolution has been bitterly denounced. But we ought not to be blind to the fact that Russia has cast off a corrupt autocracy and is now painfully seeking a way to salvation. And for all we know at present, the new Russia may lead to the salvation of the world.

THE Education (Scotland) Bill was introduced under the Ten Minutes Rule on Dec. 17. We note with satisfaction that it is proposed to raise the full-time school leaving age to 15. This step will probably arouse less opposition in Scotland than it would in England and Wales. The Bill also proposes to make attendance at continuation classes compulsory up to the age of 18, and to restrict further the employment of children out of school hours. An interesting point is the intention to empower the Local Authorities to provide libraries not only for children and young persons, but also for adults. The Bill, further, deals with denominational schools, which it is proposed should be compulsorily transferred to the Local Education Authority, with religious safeguards. The only other matter to which we need refer at the moment is the

suggestion to set up an Advisory Educational Council, representative of Universities, Local Authorities, teachers, and other classes of persons specially interested in education.

ONE of the most important documents. upon Reconstruction which have yet been published is the Report of the Sub-Committee of the Coal Conservation Committee dealing with the question of electrical power supply. It is proposed that something like sixteen super-power stations should be erected near the collieries. These central stations would distribute current to Local Authorities and electrical supply companies. If this scheme were put into operation it would become possible to utilize electrical power for a large number of purposes where, up to the present, the use of electricity has made little headway. It may, for example, become a handmaiden to the Under the overworked wife in the home. scheme decentralization of industry and its greater diffusion throughout the country would be possible without that ruin of the country-side which steam-driven factories have in the past entailed. The scheme is worth putting into operation if only because it will, in the course of time, make the country a cleaner land to live in. The Sub-Committee are clearly unsympathetic to public ownership of the electric power supply. It is certain, however, that the public will not tolerate the rise of a new monopoly of this kind, and Local Authorities are unlikely to accept a scheme which would make them the distributing agents of a private company, however much that company might be regulated by law. In a note published with the Report the Minister of Reconstruction states that the Report raises very large issues, and its publication appears to be intended to stimulate public discussion and to ascertain the views of the public on the whole question. For our part we are strongly in favour of the nationalization of the electrical power supply.

The proposal to accommodate the Air Ministry in the British Museum has aroused general indignation, and as a result we should not be surprised if the Government changed its mind. Whoever is responsible for the suggestion has woefully misjudged public opinion, which has expressed itself more emphatically than it did when the Board of Education was transferred to South Kensington. If the Government requires additional accommodation, we suggest again that there are many clubs in Pall Mall which might serve a national purpose. There are perhaps many other places which might be utilized before we are driven to commandeer such institutions as the British Museum.

The Meaning of Trade Unionism.

▼IME was—and that not so long ago when a trade union was regarded as a nefarious organization bent on sending the country to the dogs, and a trade unionist as a person of evil intentions, who whispered vile doctrines into the ear of his fellow-worker and thereby created discontent. Trade unionism was felt to be an enemy of society and a menace to the social order. Since the beginning of the War, however, there has been a silent readjustment of this point of view, due in the main to the assistance which the trade unions and their members have given to the national cause, but also to the belated discovery that trade unionists are really very much like other people. And to such an extent have times changed that trade unionism is accepted as an integral part of the national life, and supported by its former opponents against what they consider to be the disruptive influence of the rising generation of workers. But whilst public opinion has changed on the question of trade unionism there are no signs that the public yet comprehends its real significance.

This is perhaps not to be wondered at, for a large movement in our midst is rarely understood either by outsiders or by its members, who stand in the midst of its day-to-day activities. The historians of the trade union movement have among them amassed a large amount of information throwing a flood of light upon the physiological history and anatomy of the movement, but without assisting us to any clear idea of its psychology or providing us with an interpretation. We are not able, therefore, to put trade unionism in its place in the march of human history. It has been said that a trade union is "a continuous association of wageearners for the purpose of maintaining or improving the conditions of their employment." This definition is not untrue, but it is certainly incomplete. It errs through the use of an economic terminology for the definition of a human movement. But this forestalls our analysis.

Throughout the whole course of human history man has been engaged in a continuous struggle with animate and inanimate nature, and though the conquest is not yet complete, the ascendancy of man is undoubted, and has, indeed, been unquestioned for very many centuries. After mankind had established its superiority, and whilst it was engaged in harnessing to its uses the forces and resources of nature, its problems became problems of social relations, that is to say, the relations of group with group and of the individual with the group. With the general question of the development of human society we are not primarily concerned, except to point out that in this interplay of social forces and relations the conceptions of justice and liberty

emerged.

In the search for freedom men have travelled in many directions. Freedom has many sides, and is to be won on many fields. In modern times there have been several great efforts to widen and deepen men's liberty. The Renaissance culminated in the overthrow of authority in intellectual matters. The rediscovery of the culture of the ancient world, the dawn of science proclaimed in the Copernican astronomy, the discovery of America, together with the invention of printing, unshackled men's minds and widened their horizon. The Renaissance signalized the right of independent thought and the triumph of reason. The more intellectual side of the movement had its home in Italy; the hardier peoples of North-Western Europe moralized it and gave the world the Reformation, which was emblematical of moral self-determination. meant the overthrow of external moral authority. The Renaissance and the Reformation sent men on the stormy seas of intellectual and moral adventure. And though many succumbed, and still succumb, freedom of thought and belief was

But such liberty is a sickly flower, which rapidly dies unless it lives in the atmosphere of action. Thoughts and beliefs gain expression through deeds; and until they are embodied in the daily life of men and women they are but shadows.

It is not, therefore, a far step to a realization of the need for social freedom. The two great avenues to this are political and economic. political circumstances of the times provided the setting for the modern struggle for social freedom. The theory of the Divine right of kings made a mockery of intellectual and moral freedom. The seventeenth century witnessed the downfall of political autocracy in Britain. The French Revolution, complex though its motives were, asserted the right to political freedom. This movement for political democracy has swept over the civilized world during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, and final victory is not yet won.

The three R.'s which may be taken as the symbols of different aspects of the growth of

freedom—the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Revolution—are still not spent forces, for their work is as yet unfulfilled. Each movement overlaps the others, and each gains strength according to the strength of the others. Moreover, as time passes the aristocratic exclusiveness of the Renaissance broadens out into the democratic inclusiveness of the modern political movement. Before the political Revolution had won its way, the Industrial Revolution came to

threaten the growth of four centuries. The trade union movement as we know it originated as a defensive measure against the encroachments of industry. Just as the English prelates who were the precursors of the Reformation did not realize the course events were to take, so the members of the early trade unions could hardly be expected to foresee the growth of the trade union movement. But as the implications of the industrial system became more apparent and its evils more insistent, trade union structure and organization were perfected, and trade union policy more clearly articulated. From a policy of acceptance of the status quo, it passed to a policy of revolt against the existing system. It was influenced on its constructive side by the doctrines of Collectivist Socialism, and more recently it has been affected by the teachings of the Syndicalists and Guild Socialists. The trade union movement was never swept off its feet by Collectivism. Collectivist Socialism is an intellectual creed, and the British are a sentimental and not an intellectual people. On the other hand, the movement has been profoundly affected by the moral dogmas of Syndicalism; and as a result trade unionism has become more clearly conscious of its fundamental meaning. It is the economic analogue of the Renaissance, the Reformation, and the Revolution. Its aim is

Though the conception of freedom is complex. yet freedom is a unity. The intellectual and moral freedom accorded to the individual, and the political freedom of the citizen, cannot be fully exercised without economic freedom. A man's thoughts and beliefs may perhaps be kept inviolate, but if they remain unexpressed they lose their dynamic. Economic power in the hands of others may render self-expression wellnigh impossible. A man's political liberties are more apparent than real where political machinery is controlled by those with authority born of economic power. These things the intelligent trade unionist realizes; industrial autocracy is an insult to his manhood, his subordination to the industrial machine an affront to his personality. With all its crudeness Syndicalism, because it ignored the material aspects of the question and fastened on the

economic freedom.

moral issue, awakened a sympathetic response. The moral motive in trade unionism has grown stronger with every step in the consolidation of capitalism. Its ethical basis would have become clear at an earlier stage, had it not been for the fact that trade unionism was engaged in the difficult task of finding economic expression for its moral ideal. The economic labyrinth through which the trade unions had painfully to work their way gave currency to the view that their ends were materialist. The language of the market-place distorted their objects. But as trade unionism changed from the defensive to the offensive, the old demands became charged with a new meaning, or perhaps with a moreclearly conceived meaning. Demands for higher wages, greater leisure, and more security are demands for the means to an independence and freedom not otherwise obtainable. The demand for "control" is the economic counterpart of the demand for political democracy. Both were aimed against the doctrine of Divine right-in the one case of kings or political rulers, and in the other of capitalists or economic rulers.

The trade union movement is essentially a moral movement, seeking to satisfy profound spiritual needs, and striving to express an everdeepening purpose. Historically it must rank with the great movements, all of which, whatever the plane in which they worked, had essentially a common end—to enlarge the bounds of human freedom. It will be argued by many that this claim on behalf of trade unionism is preposterous, and that we have idealized trade unionism. A movement is not to be judged, however, by an examination under the microscope. All movements are failures if estimated by the extent to which they fall short of their ideals, and none can justly be asked to bear the burdens of individual shortcomings. Every great cause has worked with unworthy instruments. If the greatness and value of Christianity were judged by the lives of those who call themselves Christians, or even by the lives of Church dignitaries, the verdict would hardly be favour-Trade unionism must be judged by the ideals of its greatest leaders, by the highest expression of its aims, by the sacrifices and devotion it can command and the moral fervour it engenders. On these points it need yield nothing to any great cause.

The trade unions, like all groups of human beings, have committed blunders; but as they gain in articulateness their purpose becomes clearer and their structure more perfectly adapted to the ends in view. As sectional interests have become consolidated and unity of aim established, trade union organization has been modified accordingly. The increasing solidarity of Labour is made manifest in amalgamations and federa-

tions of trade union bodies. It is interesting to note the recent trend of events. The new evangelists in the ranks of the organized workers found trade union structure unsuited to their purpose. The shop steward is no new thing in the world of Labour. But they converted this old office into a new power, and what is called the Shop Steward movement has emerged to embody the crude but living faith of the wild enthusiasts among the rising generation. Slowly, but none the less certainly, the organization of trade unionism is beginning to adapt itself to assimilate the new spirit and the new embryonic machinery. The process will probably be painful, but it will be carried through because of the living faith inspiring the younger unionists and the strong structure of trade unionism, neither of which will perish, though each will be moulded by the other. Trade union policy will be given a new orientation; it will have passed from the un-self-conscious stage of instinctive defence to the stage of deliberate constructive effort towards the realization of industrial freedom.

Restriction of Output.

UTPUT appears to be the divinity worshipped by business men. He is, indeed, a jealous god, and will suffer no rival to be served by his true ministers. He alone promises to pay for the War; and the sacred hymn of his ministers is "Increase of Output," which they believe to express a sentiment both profitable and patriotic. It is obviously out of date in an economic age to contrast unkindly God and Mammon; for in the service of Output it is said that a man may be certain of serving both at once. But we may regard as a fair object of criticism this new religion of Output: a religion with the infallible signs of all religions—a hymn, a sermon, and a collection. As in some other forms of religion, the collection is the chief interest of its ministers, and in this religion of Output it is called profit. The sacred book of the faith is a mysterious document known as the Census of Production; and the believers imagine that statistics are

Are there any, then, who are so blind to the true interests of their country and their capitalists as to maintain the restriction of the god Output? There are, alas! some so misguided; and they are said, on the authority of an anonymous writer, to be causing a "ferment of revolution." But the ordinary citizen is not to be hoodwinked by the sermonizing of the ministers of Output; and he will do well to consider the relation of

this Output of theirs to the public good. We shall have soon to take sides. Either the pseudo-economic gospel is to be accepted and the whole force of the nation is to be devoted to Output, or there are higher ends than this, and a finer and freer faith. For if we deliberately put a limit to our work, if we restrict Output, we do so not as children in a tantrum, but as grown men with an end in view; and yet Output will be invoked when it comes to the time for deciding whether trade union customs and rules are to be restored. There is no disguising the fact that if overtime is restricted, if demarcation between skilled trades is reintroduced, the immediate result may be a lessening of the Output of industry. And are we to suppose that the public interest demands no such lessening? The reply must come, not from disputes as to this or that custom or rule, but from a consideration of that other end which subordinates to itself the increase of Output.

Trade union rules and customs aim, at any rate in part, at precisely the same ends which are aimed at by the Factory Acts. These Acts aim at securing for the workers a higher level of well-being; they subordinate Output to that end; and so do many other laws relating to industry. They seem to restrict Output because Output is calculated in terms of profit. The laws, for example, which compel the carrying of life-saving apparatus on ships restrict the profits on shipping, and even hamper the use of deck-space for cargo. It is doubtful, however, whether, if profit is restricted, the Factory Acts in the end reduce the quantity of goods produced. ut the restrictions imposed by the laws have

been neglected or deliberately disregarded during the War. Women are now employed on processes in the pottery trade which were regarded by the Law as being unsuitable for women. Overtime, in spite of the Factory Acts, is being worked in other industries, and children are being driven hard: although it is more and more recognized that overtime does not necessarily involve more production. We need not deny that all this is necessary in time of war: it is but a part of the return to barbarism which is war. But when the War is over, there is no doubt that the restrictions of the Factory Acts will be established again. For the sacrifice of weakness and youth is not excused by the need for the production of goods.

It should be self-evident that there is a price in human life and happiness which is too high to be paid for increase of Output. Men do not hesitate to die or to endure long torture for a worthy cause; but Output is not worth so much. We need to be quiet in our denial of this false god lest we express too abusively the real nature of his diabolical divinity. But we can say this

clearly. The freedom of children, the leisure of women, the health and intelligence of men, must not be sacrificed on the gloomy and blood-

stained altar of this economic idol.

Output, however, is not restricted only in the interest of health and life. The trade union custom which involves a demarcation of work, one kind of work being reserved for men of a special class, is not simply a protection of health. To the manager, who desires to have the work done quickly, it may seem unreasonable that he should not be able to put any chance man he may find to do it. And the general public are easily persuaded by ignorant journalists that their interests suffer from the delay caused by trade union custom. Indeed, the most fantastic egoism is put down to the skilled men of the unions. And we need not here present any apology for possible egoism. There are egoists in every camp, and some in every camp will use fine phrases to cover mean desires. But the gospellers of Output go too far when they speak, or make their tame journalists write, as though the organization of industry were thrown into disorder by the demands of the trade union. The implied presupposition, that industry is an orderly organization, is simply laughable. Periodic unemployment, casual labour, partial starvation of 23 per cent of Englishmen, the slumps in trade following over-production-are these the signs of orderly organization? No: the god Output is a god of chaos. In fact, the very purpose of the trade union customs, in demarcation, in control of overtime, even in "ca' canny" where it exists, is the introduction of order where none exists. It pays the enthusiast for profits not to have order in the supply of labour, and the wrecker and obstructionist is more often found in the employers' federation than in the trade union. But for the trade union most of industry would be mere chaos. Let the public then complain that the trade unions sacrifice too much for the purpose of reducing industry to order; but let them not suppose that the capitalist desires order and the trade unionist desires chaos. It may be revolutionary to sweep the streets in cities in which custom allows of heaps of garbage; but the ferment which promotes discontent with chaos is an advance on the conservatism of those who prefer the proximity of garbage.

And are we to suppose that the trade union custom which, with the aim of introducing order, restricts Output is necessarily sacrificing too much? It may be so in any given case; or the order according to which the work of skilled men is distributed may be too simple. But that would not justify the abolition of all forms of demarcation. If the old custom is bad for the purpose in view, by all means let us have a new custom;

but if it is merely inconvenient for the gaining of excess profits, the old custom must stand. The public benefit more by the introduction of order into industry than they do by an increase

in the profits of the capitalist.

The same must be said of that other class of trade union customs which prevent the exceptionally skilful from being used to drive out or to overdrive the ordinary workman. The ignorant journalist writes as if this were a wanton restriction of Output, which prevents the exceptional man working at his best; and even Henry Sidgwick, honest if somewhat unimaginative as he was, wrote of this kind of custom as though it were obstructive of progress. To the trade unionist this, however, appears to be a protection of the weak or of the average man. And we need not suppose that this is its only defence, since, quite apart from the interest of the trade unionist, it is for the public good that order should be introduced among the workers. You may say that to treat them as equally effective is nonsense; and so it is, if it is nonsense to treat men as politically equal. But until some other and better system is introduced the old method must be maintained; for to leave it to the caprice of a manager to say how much each man is worth to him is to increase the chaos of industry. Our common interest as citizens, whether as producers or as consumers, demands the establishment of order and security in employment, and as the increase of Output is of subordinate importance to this, we must repudiate the worship of unlimited production. That the State can limit Output we see from the whole body of our industrial law; but freedom demands that those who are most nearly concerned should have power to establish for themselves such order as may appear to them necessary.

We are not maintaining that trade union customs should necessarily be restored in their pre-war form. That is a question to be decided later. But we most strenuously deny the validity of the contrast which the gospellers of Output are forcing into the public mind. There is no truth in the statement that on the one side are increase of Output and the public interest, and on the other restriction of Output and trade unionism. The public interest is not to be identified with an unqualified or unlimited increase of Output. The first and greatest interest of all citizens is the replacing of the caprice and egoism of the managers in industry by the introduction of order and system. It may very well be that necessary production would not be sacrificed by such a change, since men work willingly when they know how they stand, but insecurity and uncertainty unnerve the whole body. The chief point, however, is not the effect on production, but the establishment of an organization in industry; and it is abundantly evident that the public interest is maintained by those who will subordinate Output to life and health, and who will limit Output for the sake of order and

system.

Indeed, the very believers in the god Output keep their god in due subjection. Who restricts Output by shutting down mills when the profit on the product is not large enough? Who restricts Output by holding up ships until freights are "remunerative"? So, after all, the religion of Output has an eye chiefly to the collection, which is profit: it does not inculcate the supply of unlimited goods to the public. And if Output is not to be restricted for the sake of health or of order, why should it be restricted for the sake of profits? Again, Output is

restricted less by trade union custom than by incompetent management and obsolete methods of industrial organization. Let that restriction be removed. It is absolutely inexcusable, and is only maintained by the inertia and unimaginativeness of those who now control industry. When that is cured, it will be time enough to speak of the restriction of Output which may be due to trade union custom. Meantime we may well ask why the gospellers of Output maintain that only the workers are to blame. This pseudo-economic gospel is the egoism of a clique. The god Output is an empty idol: in his hollow head resounds the ancient lie that men must be sacrificed to money; and the voice that comes through the idol's mouth is the voice of a business man.

International Economic Relations.

IV.—A European Retrospect.

HE previous articles of this series have been concerned with ideas and principles. In this and the succeeding article it is proposed to turn aside from theory to practice, and to examine the manner in which the economic tendencies which we have successively passed in review - cosmopolitanism, nationalism, and militarism—have been exemplified in the history of the last few generations. For purposes of convenience the European side of the record will be dealt with first, leaving the question of Colonial Policy, or what is often called Imperialism, for separate treatment. The discussion must necessarily be curtailed, and the conclusions rough and summary. But, however confused and complicated the details, the main outline and moral of the story stand out clear and unmistakable in the light of present events.

The economic history of Europe during the last five generations may be divided into three periods. We may describe them as the era of Union, the era of Internationalism, and the era

of Competitive Nationalism.

The first period opens in 1775, and extends to the middle of the nineteenth century. It is characterized by the sweeping away, in country after country, of mediæval privilege and parochialism, and by the emergence of the States of Europe with economic systems and frontiers as we know them to-day. It marks, in fact, the achievement by most of the Continental Powers of the work which had already been effected, before the period opened, by the two leading commercial Powers, Britain and Holland.

This process of union and consolidation was not the fruit of the French Revolution or of the nationalist and democratic movements which it inspired. In origin and essence it was prenationalist and pre-democratic. It formed part of the political programme of the enlightened thinkers and statesmen of the eighteenth century, and its most conspicuous exponents were the chosen ministers of paternal Governments, not democrats but bureaucrats. Thus Colbert, the minister of Louis XIV., had aimed at effecting the economic union of France, though it was not till 1791, by a decree of the National Assembly, that the provincial tariffs were finally swept away, and a common and uniform economic system established throughout the country. Already sixteen years before, in 1775, Count Cobenzl, the minister of Maria Theresa, had succeeded in breaking down tariff barriers throughout most of present-day Austria. Hungary, the Tyrol, and the Italian provinces still remained outside, but it was the declared policy of Cobenzl and his successor Kaunitz to form the whole of the Hapsburg dominions into " a single uniform customs and economic unit." Reactionaries in Austria and nationalists in Hungary combined to retard further progress, and it was not till 1850 that the tariff wall between the two countries was broken down. The full union of which the earlier statesmen dreamed was, however, not attained. Under the existing arrangement, which dates from 1867, the tariff common to both sections of the Dual Monarchy forms the subject of

periodical negotiations between the two countries, and is embodied in a treaty or Ausgleich, generally covering a ten-year period. The present Ausgleich was due to lapse on Dec. 31, 1917, but as difficulties, which have so far not been surmounted, have attended the negotiation of the new tariff, the old one is being provisionally continued for two years. The present intention is that the new Ausgleich shall run for twenty years, and form the basis of a twenty years' commercial treaty with the German Empire.

Prussia, the model bureaucratic State, affords another example of the idea of union at work. By the Prussian customs law of 1818, carried through under the influence of Adam Smith's writings, the provincial tariffs, no fewer than sixty-seven in number, were swept away, together with a motley collection of other taxes, and another large Free Trade area established. The territory thus cleared of mediæval obstructions was soon extended. German public opinion was at that time fully ripe for political union, which would have brought economic union in its train, as in the United States, Canada, Australia, and South Africa. But the vested interests of the German princes were an insuperable obstacle to the larger policy. A customs union or Zollverein was a natural compromise, and in 1834, after elaborate negotiations embodied in mutual treaties, a Zollverein of seventeen States, numbering twenty-three million inhabitants, came into existence. Its advantages soon became manifest, and its borders were eventually extended until by 1867 it included the whole of the present German Empire, except Hamburg and Bremen. Hamburg did not enter the Zollverein till 1882, after negotiations for maintaining a small free port area.

Attempts were made at various times to extend the German Zollverein so as to include Austria, Holland, Belgium, Switzerland, and even Piedmont. As early as 1822, indeed, the President of the Swiss assembly, in an official address to that body, held out the prospect of a single Free Trade area stretching from the lower Rhine to Genoa. Friedrich List regarded the economic union of Germany and the Netherlands as ordained by Nature herself, and the "Great German Radicals" of the day, as opposed to the school which centred its hopes in Prussia, looked forward to a single economic territory reaching to the borders of the Orient. But all these projects proved abortive. The wars of 1866 (in which the States comprising the Zollverein were represented on both sides) and of 1870, together with the establishment of the dual system in Austria-Hungary in 1867, crystallized Germany and Austria-Hungary into two separate political and economic units. By the events of 1859, 1860, and 1866 Italy also achieved her economic unity; whilst on a smaller stage, after a long struggle against cantonal clannishness, Switzerland achieved hers in the Federal

Constitution of 1848.

The second period, that of economic internationalism, may be said to open with the repeal of the British Corn Laws in 1846 and to close with the German tariff of 1879. Here again Britain was the inspiring force. In the eyes of Adam Smith and the British statesmen who were his disciples, the idea of union—that is, the breaking down of local tariffs and the establishment of freedom of intercourse within the State was inseparable from the idea of internationalism, and the increase of freedom of intercourse throughout the world. Free Trade at home and abroad seemed to them two inseparable aspects of one and the selfsame political and fiscal programme. It was, indeed, to Bright and Cobden and the men of that generation more than a programme: it was a religion. "Jesus Christ is Free Trade: Free Trade is Jesus Christ," cried one of their best-known disciples, Sir John Bowring; and the success and enthusiasm of the British movement made a deep impression throughout the Continent. For a generation after 1846 it was the current belief among Continental writers and statesmen that the world was entering upon an era of Free Trade and international peace, and that the customs duties which still remained, in so far as they did not serve purely for revenue purposes, were destined to disappear at no distant date. Thus even Friedrich List, so often quoted to-day as the high priest of Protectionism, advocated tariffs for growing industries only, and regarded Free Trade as demonstrably the right policy for an adult and developed community. The policy of Free Trade thus occupied much the same position as the policy of union in the preceding period; it was accepted in "enlightened" circles, but had a hard battle to fight against ignorance, folly, and vested interests.

It is one of the ironies of history that the international Free Trade movement won its greatest triumph through secret diplomacy, and embodied its result in a treaty which, had it required to be submitted to the popular representatives, would never have been ratified. Yet that instrument, the Anglo-French Treaty of 1860, was undoubtedly the most important and far-reaching fiscal event of this period. It not only achieved a very large measure of Free Trade in itself—on the British side it involved the reduction of the number of commodities liable to duty from 419 to 58-but it was so framed as to influence the whole world of States in a Free Trade direction. By the invention of the device of the most-favoured-nation clause, both sides were left free to extend to other Powers the reductions which they had granted to one another, and it was, indeed, understood that they would do so. Napoleon III., to whose initiative the treaty was due, was a Free Trade ruler hampered by a Protectionist Parliament. Unable to lower the French tariff by a Finance Act, he hit upon the expedient of doing so by treaty; and the use of the most-favourednation clause enabled him to make further reductions, by an almost automatic process, without reference to Parliament. By this means he not only increased his own control over public affairs, but placed his country at the centre of what grew to be an elaborate network of international agreements.

The Franco-German War placed Germany, instead of France, in the centre of the European stage, but it left the Free Trade idea still in the ascendant. When the annexation of Alsace-Lorraine practically doubled the cotton spindles and weaving looms in Germany without any appreciable extension of the home market, protests were loud from the spinners and weavers of Prussia, Saxony, and Silesia. But Bismarck, still a convinced adherent of the Free Trade theory, refused to bow before their clamour, and the new provinces were admitted without qualification into the Zollverein. Germany was, in fact, during those years progressing rapidly towards the Free Trade ideal. The large landowners, or Junkers, of the eastern provinces had not yet begun to feel the pressure of extra-European competition and still favoured Free Trade, as in 1818, because it ensured them cheap agricultural machinery. The Liberal Party, representing the professoriate, the commercial class, and many of the manufacturers, was of the same way of thinking, and it was upon the parliamentary support of the Liberals that Bismarck at that time principally relied. The German tariff was successively reduced in 1868, 1870, 1873, and 1877, till in the last-named year, in the words of Mr. Ashley, "only a small group of highly finished commodities remained liable to duties: the German Empire had become very nearly a free-trading State.

Then suddenly a sharp reaction set in. At the end of 1878 Bismarck found himself faced with the necessity of raising considerable additional revenue. He was also at last in a position to dispense with Liberal support. In October, 1878, 204 members of the Reichstag, constituting a majority, signed a declaration in favour of a reconsideration of fiscal policy, and Bismarck decided to meet his needs by indirect taxation in the form of customs duties. In abandoning his old policy he was careful to pay lip service to the principles which he had hitherto professed. "I leave undecided," he wrote in

a letter to the tariff committee of the Bundesrat, "the question whether complete mutual freedom of international commerce, such as is contemplated by the theory of Free Trade, would not serve the interests of Germany. But as long as most of the countries with which our trade is carried on surround themselves with customs barriers, which there is still a growing tendency to multiply, it does not seem to me justifiable, or to the economic interest of the nation, that we should allow ourselves to be restricted in the satisfaction of our financial wants by the apprehension that German products will thereby be slightly preferred to foreign ones."

His argument, in fact, was an argument justifying indirect as against direct taxation, not an argument in favour of the protection of German industry; but his proposals, when produced, inevitably stimulated Protectionist appetites. In the form in which it was finally passed the German tariff of 1879, though far from "scientific" in detail, afforded a moderate protection to agriculture and industry alike.

The change in German fiscal policy did not stand alone. Already in 1877, a year when most of the French commercial treaties were due to expire, it was clear that Protectionism was in the ascendant, and the new tariff, which was finally passed, after many vicissitudes, in May, 1881, was markedly higher than its predecessor. The same was true of the Italian tariff of 1878 and of the Russian tariff of 1877, the first of a steadily rising series. The smaller countries. which had most to lose by a change in the prevailing spirit and theory of international trade, early scented the danger. "The renewal of these treaties," reported a Swiss Parliamentary Committee in connexion with some commercial negotiations in 1875,

"would be unnecessary if the principles of Free Trade, which have justified themselves, after so long a struggle, in the eyes of the nations...still remained the dominant theory. But unfortunately it seems as if these sound principles of social economy were likely once more to be cast aside."

An era of competitive nationalism was in fact setting in, the aftermath of the great movement of nationalist idealism which characterized the middle years of the century. Yet, just as Britain was the example and the inspiring force of the earlier movements, so opinion has rightly connected the later development with the name of Germany. If Germany had remained true to Bismarck's earlier views on international economic relationships, Europe would still have passed through a crisis of competitive Protectionism. But it was Germany which gave body, science, method, and thoroughness to the new movement, which invented its most characteristic weapons, developed its technique to the point of perfection with which the world is familiar; above all, which brought into being a new conception of trade and industry by linking them up with the philosophy of power. As Prof. Schmoller,

for half a century the mouthpiece of orthodox German economic opinion, expresses it, competitive nationalism or neo-mercantilism (as it is technically called) took its rise in the nationalist movement, and is based, not on List's theory of "educational tariffs [i.e., the infant industries doctrine], but on the desire to possess an instrument of power (Machtmittel) in international relations."

The consequences of the new German policy of 1879 are writ large in the recent history of Europe. Prof. Brentano of Munich, in a recent (1916) pamphlet, goes so far as to see in it the chief operative cause of the European War:—

"Since that time [he writes] the European continent has lived in an era of reawakened mercantilism. We have seen the dead-and-buried doctrine of the favourable and un-favourable 'balance of trade' disinterred from its ashes. We have once more surrounded ourselves with a barbedwire entanglement of high import duties, and increased freight charges, both for imports and exports, and even of export limitations for raw materials and bounties of all kinds for the promotion of the export of semi-manufactured articles. We have once more returned to the primitive belief that in trade profit on one side must involve loss on the other, and on the conclusion of a commercial agreement we ask, as men did in the old days, which side has secured the advantage over the other. And in order to ensure that the advantage may rest with ourselves we provide our negotiators with a whole arsenal of weapons which are to compel the other side to surrender. Once more Europe is familiar with 'fighting tariffs' and tariff wars, and, just as the older mercantilism led from tariff wars to bloody battles, so Germany has for twenty-five years been faced with the danger that her strained economic relations with Russia might develop into actual warfare."

The picture here set before us is in no way overdrawn; but the development, like the parallel process in the sphere of competitive military and naval armaments, proceeded by gradual stages. The most-favoured-nation clause still remained an important feature in international agreements, and exercised a considerable, if diminishing, influence in the direction of agreement and moderation. Moreover, from time to time the international tension was relaxed, and an era of co-operation and comparative quiescence supervened. Thus in 1892 Bismarck's successor, Count Caprivi, concluded commercial treaties of ten years' duration between Germany and most of the other Powers, the features of which were reciprocal most-favoured-nation treatment and reduction of duties. He was sincerely anxious to maintain friendly relations between Germany and her neighbours, large and small, and even dreamed of reviving the idea of a Central European economic system based on sincere friendship and mutual co-operation. Speaking of the Triple Alliance in 1891, he remarked, in words which must have caused a pang to many of his Junker listeners in the Reichstag:

"I am of opinion that when one has contracted an alliance with other States....it is not possible to live in a

permanent state of economic warfare with them. If I declare economic war on any one, my object is to weaken him; but our interest is to strengthen our allies, not to weaken them."

These were not idle phrases. Crispi in his memoirs relates that Caprivi discussed with him in Milan in 1891 the formation of an Economic Union of the three allies, and that only his own retirement from the Italian premiership prevented the realization of the project. His estimate may have been too sanguine, but the story is an interesting record of a notable phase

in German policy.

But Caprivi's reign was of brief duration. The concessions which he had obtained in foreign tariffs almost doubled the German export trade in the ten years during which his treaties were in force; and the town workmen benefited equally by the low price of foodstuffs, and especially by the influx of grain from Hungary due to the treaty with Austria-Hungary. But this was just what the Junkers could not forgive. "We must destroy the Austrian treaty, if it takes the sword to do it," wrote their organ, the Kreuz Zeitung, on Nov. 24, 1893; and in 1894, soon after the conclusion of the last of his projected treaties, that with Russia, they succeeded in procuring Caprivi's dismissal. They continued their agitation during the succeeding years, and were largely responsible for the tariff of 1902, which is still in force. That tariff, the fruits of the Chancellorship of Prince Bülow, embodies the result of the sinister alliance, with which we are familiar in the sphere of war aims, between the large landlords and the great manufacturing interests, to which the interests of the consumer, the trader, and the small proprietor have been ruthlessly sacrificed. It came into force in 1906, and was followed by the conclusion of another series of treaties, most of which extended to the end of 1917.

There is no space to enter into further detail as to the conduct of international economic relations during the period so abruptly closed by the War. Attention has been concentrated on Germany, because Germany occupied the centre of the stage. Two illustrations may be given in conclusion to indicate the growing sharpness of the tension. The first may be taken from the history of Switzerland, a country which, surrounded as it is on all sides by large and powerful neighbours, reacts like a sensitive plant to the stimuli of its environment. The first Swiss tariff of 1851 served revenue purposes only. Not till 1884 was any change of outlook visible in the customs law. The tariffs of 1884 and 1887 were framed partly with the object of assisting negotiators by providing scope for the reduction of duties. The tariff of 1801 was frankly a "fighting [i.e., retaliatory]

tariff," though it was also partly inspired by Protectionist principles. In the existing tariff, which dates from 1902, Protection and retaliation are the two dominant motives: financial considerations are wholly secondary. In Switzerland, as in Germany, agricultural and industrial interests combined forces at the expense of the industrial working class.

A still more striking instance of the new and less friendly atmosphere is provided by what an Austrian Socialist writer describes as the "undermining of the most-favoured-nation clause.' In its original intention the clause was designed to facilitate the reduction of duties. If Germany, for instance, had a duty at a certain rate on cattle and reduced that duty in a treaty with Switzerland, then France, by virtue of her mostfavoured - nation arrangement with Germany, would enjoy the benefit of the same reduction. But the German and other Governments gradually discovered that this result might be prevented by an increasingly close particularization of the object on which it was agreed to reduce the duty. Thus, in one of the German-Swiss treaties, the particular class of cattle on which the German Government was prepared to forgo the higher rate of duty was so closely particularized as to evoke the following outburst from a critic of the Junkers in the Reichstag:

"The good cow in question will have to prove that she has spent the golden days of her childhood 300 metres above sea-level, and has enjoyed a regular summer holiday of at least four weeks 800 metres above sea-level. How can the customs authorities demonstrate this except by attaching a self-registering barometer to the poor animal's tail?

Such a subdivision of items as in this case reduces the most-favoured-nation clause to little more than a mockery. Yet these devices have been adopted in growing measure, not least in the fiscal arrangements of the United States. As a natural result, the clause has been declining in popularity. Britain alone, which has nothing to bargain with in commercial negotiations, has steadfastly adhered to it. Whether the mostfavoured-nation clause will recover its ancient position as an instrument making for general uniformity and co-operation in the practice of international economic policy will depend upon the spirit in which the crisscross of commercial negotiations, which must accompany or follow the coming settlement, is conducted by the various Governments.

The Head Master and Art.

HERE happened a dozen years ago an encounter between a Head Master and an Inspector of Schools which remains deeply impressed on the memory of one, if not of both, of the combatants. It was an uneven struggle. One of them held a strong position behind entrenchments of prejudice, while the other was encumbered by conflicting ideals.

The teaching of drawing was in question. The official urged more consideration of the subject. The head master showed frankly his lack of enthusiasm, even his contempt for the drawing lesson. His reasons were explicit. The masters of all the other subjects in his school were men of University education and scholarship. The drawing master was, in his opinion. uneducated, having only a native gift, trained under no particular academic system. Further (and here he showed most clearly his instinctive dislike), the drawing lesson was the slackest hour in the time-table. It was a lesson of a superficial kind, aiming at the acquirement of a sort of skill or accomplishment of little use to most boys, and of no particular service as a training of the mind.

The official, though himself devoted to the service of art, found it hard to meet these charges, or to attempt to gain the object of his errand. His secret sympathy was with the head master: for was he not after all nearly right?

Pondering on this problem, he paid the formal

visit to the classroom.

The drawing lesson was of a type already extinct in these days. The boys in the early stages were given printed ornamental diagrams to copy in pencil, but occasionally a boy showing special talent would be promoted to copying real drawings or even to work in colour. To the ordinary boy it was a dismal hour. Only the few specially sensitive to form took any pains in their work or received more than perfunctory attention from the teacher. During the successive years of the course the collected class-work showed little or no development. Surely the head master's dislike was justified. There was no training of the mind, no reference to classics of any kind, and no teaching of principles. The drawing class was frankly of little service to any but the specially talented boys. It was tolerated as an ornament to the time-table, but was no essential part of it—something to be added if there were time to spare, but of no particular importance. How had it ever been permitted to intrude? Perhaps it was to soothe the vague stirrings or cravings in the national conscience that had been aroused by our writers and prophets of the late nineteenth century, who had become aware that a dearth of beauty seemed likely to prevail as the new industrial civilization spread like a plague over the disfigured world. The doctrine of Ruskin had foretold nothing but evil from the increasing power of machinery. He proposed no remedy, but pleaded with persuasive eloquence for the study of the work of the great masters in art. It was under such influences that the hour for drawing had been introduced, and grudgingly allowed in our middle and upper class schools in the last

quarter of the nineteenth century.

The next few years brought a succession of reforms. Drawing was found to have a general educative value in quickening the powers of observation and perception. Even the authority of science encouraged the training of hand and eve; and the drawing lesson was firmly established. Its methods were improved. In place of the old, misnamed, freehand drawing, simple objects or groups of objects of everyday use were set for study, or growing portions of plant form-buds opening into leaf in the springtime, or flowers, sprays of leaves, or seed-vessels. It was found that all normal children have a capacity for observing and recording form, as well as a love of colour, and the class-work gained greatly in interest. The sterility of the older system gave way to a healthy exercise of normal powers and faculties, with the common surroundings of life for models-in the winter, still-life work; in the spring and summer, plants and flowers, and, occasionally, some drawing out of doors. Craftwork in embroidery for girls, and stencil cutting or wood and metal work for boys, were sometimes also associated with drawing. So, gradually, we arrived at the methods of art teaching common to-day in schools, in most of which, whether public or private, there is now included in the curriculum a systematic course of drawing, usually on good lines. periods of study each week are the common allowance of time. The class-work is interesting, and often attains a fairly high level of accomplishment. There is a great deal to be said in its favour.

It is obvious that the training of the faculties of perception and observation by such means has a real value in education, and that skill in drawing is of service in many occupations or professions followed by pupils in after-school years. Moreover, some refinement of the sense of form must result from the close study of the growth of plants and flowers, and from the attempts to draw them. The still-life exercises also contribute to this result, and where craftwork is undertaken the constructive faculties may be awakened to a sense of beauty in The results of the past few years justify these claims, and it has now become impossible for the most conservative of classical head masters to withhold some allowance of time and space for the intrusive subject. Some head masters, indeed, have welcomed it, and one finds schools where the art room is second only to the science rooms in construction and

equipment. There are a north light, studio blinds, a collection of still-life objects, casts, stuffed birds, butterflies, and an ample supply of special materials and tools. The walls are hung with examples of the work of the best pupils. There is clever accomplishment in the vivid water-colour pictures, and the room has a glamour of art.

How great is the defeat of ancient prejudice and stubborn opposition! Art seems surely to have come into her kingdom, and a new future of colour and beauty to open before us!

Yet here an artist, mindful of graver issues, may confess the revival of his sympathy with the attitude and prejudices of the classical head master of old days, and a sense of regret at his defeat. Questions arise that are difficult to answer. Do our new standards really bear comparison with his? Are our results important yet? Have we as high an appreciation of true scholarship as he had? Do we in this new teaching of art communicate an understanding of principles, or any acquaintance with the great classical examples of æsthetic design? Do we so train the mind that artistic judgment rests on a sound foundation, or on a clear perception of the meaning of design? Will any of this work give to the handiwork of our people better form, grace, or dignity, or the desire for these in the surroundings and instruments of everyday life? Are we not using as an end what should be rather used as a means?

The old classical discipline gave us these qualities of form, grace, and dignity in the use of the language and the literature of our people. To-day a sixth-form boy will point out obvious faults of construction or style in a phrase of English. Could he do the same in regard to the furniture in his head master's study, or in regard to the printing of the textbooks used in his school, or, indeed, in regard to any

matter of simple artistic design?

He would probably state his liking or disliking of the thing in question, would call it "pretty good" or "jolly ugly" as his taste might suggest to him; but as for any clear judgment or knowledge of principles relating to appropriateness of design, or to soundness of construction, or to treatment of material, he would have none, nor would he guess that such principles can even be stated. He would be unable to back his private judgment by an appeal to principles or by any reference to the great examples in classic or modern work.

Yet in the teaching of other subjects—in English, or in the science classes, for instance—there is constant appeal to principles, and reference to classical or typical examples. A boy is not shown, in the chemical or physical laboratory, a series of merely amusing experiments or

surprising facts. He is shown these things, but with continued reference to controlling or underlying principles, so that his knowledge and experience take form and order in his mind. But in art, in all that relates to the form given by human design to the objective world of civilized life, no principles are taught, no great examples of perfectly designed form are made familiar to his experience, nor is it apparently considered necessary to give him any instruction beyond that sufficient for the drawing of a few pots and pans, or the painting of foliage and flowers in water colour. The end of art study for him is this slight pictorial or graphic exercise. The significance of the forms of dwellings, of furniture, of the letters of his written or printed language, of all the innumerable things made by thoughtful design and fine craftsmanship, lies beyond his discernment. He knows when a phrase is ungrammatical; he acquires some power of literary expression, and knows what is false in style. He learns the principles of chemical combination, and is told how the elements of the very earth are formed. He learns to play fairly at games. But of workmanship itself, of design in his immediate environment of clothing, home, street, town, he is left ignorant. Whether it be that these are mysteries beyond the ken of ordinary men and boys, or too common to be worthy of attention, at all events their study is not part of what to-day is called education.

The official has still his problem to solve, and the head master has yet to be convinced.

F. M. F.

Teachers in Council.

THE domestic politics of our time display two contrasted movements operating side by side, sometimes coming into conflict with each other, but sometimes revolving each in its own sphere without apparent cognizance of the other's activity: the one finds its most vigorous exposition in politics affecting the general government of communities, parochial, local, national; the other rests upon a man's calling in life—his trade union, an employers' federation, or a medical association. In the Middle Ages the two movements came to close quarters in the local life of cities; the Guild Socialists would have us seek a renewal of this intimacy on a national scale. It is not my purpose to discuss the interplay of these two movements; I have alluded to them in order to show that the problem before us has general aspects which should not be overlooked when a specified case is under treatment.

When education, half a century ago, began to be a matter of important political controversy

there was little organization among teachers; the rival parties both assumed that any educational programme sanctioned by law would ipso facto be carried out by those whom the public appointed to the task. Meanwhile, however, the teacher has become articulate; side by side with the immensely increased attention devoted to education by the public, we witness an inner professional movement, resulting in a complex variety of institutions, each of them claiming, in its sphere, to influence not only the details of schoolroom procedure, but the general trend of educational policy. It is the less necessary to describe in detail the range of these activities, since the establishment of the Teachers' Registration Council afforded the public a ready means of examining the field.* What I desire to consider is the mode in which an approchement between the two can be attained—between the public lay authorities exercising final control, and the professional bodies which speak on behalf of The great mass of teachers have teachers. the status of an employee—a public servant, although not a "civil" servant; and the status of each depends solely upon his individual contract, services rendered for wage received. His calling, however, differs radically from that of other employees in that the results of his activity cannot be assessed. Any person of moderate intellectual attainments, who chooses to pass the modest tests that are imposed, can follow the calling; by a steady fulfilment of the daily round he can be secure for life in his humble position, although his efficiency as a real teacher, as a decisive influence on the character and capacity of his pupils, may be very

Two results follow from this position. Firstly, the calling is depreciated by the general public; it has little prestige. If a teacher is also a great scholar he is respected, but only for his learning; here and there men or women of special gifts come to be greatly appreciated in a community where generations of children have grown up under their beneficent influence; but this is a rare occurrence. Secondly, the teachers themselves do not enhance their own dignity: they seldom nowadays advise their offspring to adopt the calling; they constantly complain, and with justice, of the exiguous payment awarded for their services. As a result, the nation is now confronted with a crisis: many thousands of novices are required to fill the depleted ranks as well as to meet the demands for new fields of endeavour now to be opened up; but, instead of anticipating a greatly enlarged profession, every one knows that the

^{*} Reference should also be made to the Supplements to The New Statesman, Sept. 25 and Oct. 2, 1915, in which all the teachers' societies were exhaustively reviewed.

demand outruns the supply by many thousands. Such a measure as the Fisher Grant, if generously worked out by the Local Authorities, will do a little to brighten the situation; but it will not do much, for the increased cost of living has extended far beyond what can be apportioned to each teacher from this source. Nor is increased emolument of itself a remedy for the disability which underlies the teacher's calling, for the simple reason, as we have already noted, that his services cannot be assessed on a cash basis. What the community wants to get out of him is his "heart and soul," his character at its best, his enthusiasm and devotion to children's welfare. The problem for the public, and for members of Education Committees, is to find conditions under which a maximum amount of these supreme qualities can be evinced; and the reply must be forthcoming in terms not of individual contract, but of recognition and status.

We need not delay to argue the general position in modern society of status as opposed to contract. It is at bottom an affair of social psychology: a man estimates himself and makes the best of himself largely in response to the stimulus of his social milieu. If a teacher is placed among brethren whose collective opinion is treated by the community as worthy of regard -if he has a "voice," recognized by law and by general goodwill, in public policy—he is likely to give more than he is paid to give, to give those indefinable but precious things which are the final things by which a system of education stands or falls. Some slight advance has already been made in the realization of this principle: by the Act of 1902 Education Committees were encouraged to co-opt one or more teachers. a few instances this step has not only provided local government with excellent members, but has enhanced the prestige of the profession. As a rule, however, co-option has achieved little; the teacher's position as a colleague with lay members is always uncertain, and the fact that one of their number is fortunate enough to be raised to an executive position does little to affect the status of the rank and file. A much more promising step was taken a few years ago on behalf of the entire body of teachers when the Registration Council was created under the provisions of the Act of 1907. By this means a recognized instrument was created by which the collective will of the entire profession can be expressed: an instrument wholly dependent upon the public spirit of the teaching body itself, and wholly independent of the employer, whether at Whitehall or in the provinces. Although this Council has only recently got into active working, there is abundant evidence that it both can and will render national service. It has no powers, except as regards the qualifications of those admitted to its register, but it can speak its mind; it pools the united experience of the many teachers' societies by whom it is constituted; it is already recognized in matters of capital importance by the Board of Education; and it may be confidently expected that it will materially contribute to raise the position of the teacher in national esteem.

What is now required is to copy this pattern in local organization. In every area, county, borough, or district, where the law entrusts public education to an "Authority," the teachers, both those employed under contract and those who follow their calling apart from the Authority, could be constituted by law as a Faculty of Teachers acting through representatives, whose opinion would be sought before the executive body decided to introduce changes. The term "Faculty" is chosen on the analogy of our modern Universities, where by charter the teaching body (not only the professors, but the lower ranks) are given due recognition and status.

So long as such a Faculty of Teachers was limited to its proper function, *i.e.*, as expressing and publishing its opinion without claiming executive control, little objection could be entertained, on public grounds, to its creation. Enlightened Education Committees already recognize the need for co-operation with their employees; some local officials might be jealous lest their personal authority would be endangered, but many of these have themselves been teachers, and they will understand how necessary it has become, in the complex organization of modern society, to give due weight to the united

experience of public servants.

In this brief sketch I have only outlined in baldest terms the lines on which this reform could be set on foot. No doubt the Government Bill is sufficiently loaded already with proposals which will occupy the scanty time of the House of Commons; much discussion would be needed before any such proposal, even of a permissive nature, could be set down in a Bill. But we are living in times when opinion ripens rapidly, for men's minds are open to reform far beyond what seemed possible before 1914. Reconstruction in education, as in all social matters, must look to the foundations; the foundation of a true system of education can only be sought in measures which will create and will maintain a service of teachers whose competence and devotion are worthy of the people whom they serve. To devise plans to that end is the final function of statesmanship in education. The great measure which has been presented to Parliament claims to devise a "national system of education"; but the structure will never be complete until due regard is paid to the status of the teaching body.

J. J. FINDLAY.

The Future of the Woman War Worker.

CONOMIC theories die hard. mists kill them and bury them; but they live on in the minds of generations of politicians and journalists. Such a theory is the old "wages fund," with its supposition that a definite sum of capital is available at any given time for the payment of wages, and that the average rate of wages is therefore predetermined by the amount of that capital sum together with the number of hungry labourers among whom it has to be divided. In 1869 this theory was repudiated by one of its leading advocates, John Stuart Mill; and during the decade or so which followed, the so-called "produce theory" crept into its place. Wages ceased to be regarded as part of a capital fund, and came to be regarded as part of the national income, dependent upon the total amount of that income, and upon the bargaining powers of the parties claiming a share in its distribution. In so far as the amount of capital in existence affects the productivity of labour, and therefore the extent of the national income, wages may be said to be dependent upon the existing amount of capital. Again, in so far as the existing amount of capital and the number of available labourers, by the operation of economic competition, affect the bargaining powers of Capital on the one hand and Labour on the other, they may be said to determine the rate of wages. But the connexion is not so straightforward; the old simple formula that " wages not only depend upon the relative amount of capital and population, but cannot, under the rule of competition, be affected by anything else," has gone; economists no longer ignore the fact that an additional mouth in the labour market carries with it an additional pair of hands for the augmentation of the source of wages, or that the requirements of that mouth widen the market for the produce of industry. And yet to-day we can trace from time to time an underlying implication that one man's employment is another man's exclusion, that post-war industry will find it difficult to make room for demobilized men plus war-working women — in fine, that somewhere there is a sort of artificial limitation to the demand for labour. It is an aftermath of the "wages fund," and an exceedingly pernicious one when we remember to what an extent our economic recovery after the War will depend upon increased labour-power, making for new capital accumulation and the re-establishment of our pre-war national income.

The problem is, of course, a problem of adjustment; of the distribution of labour, skilled and

unskilled, male and female, among the various existing and potential occupations which the return of peace conditions will offer. And from the workers' point of view it is predominantly a question of how to stifle the renewed competition which would necessarily prejudice the bargaining power of Labour in the coming scramble for the produce of industry, with special reference to the outstanding problem of how to deal with the army of women workers which war conditions have called from home duties or unenterprising idleness, as the case may be. It is here that we see looming ahead of us the horrible possibility of something like an industrial sex war, in which the men's trade unions, and, no doubt, for sentimental reasons, a large section of the public, will be on one side—the industrial women, supported by the employers for purposes of their own, on the other.

Broadly, the position of the women is this: In normal times they have had, for various reasons, to put up with a wage-level considerably below that of the corresponding class of male wage-earner. Among these reasons we may include their inferior physical capacity in a number of occupations; their lower subsistencelevel, resulting from the general absence of dependent families and the frequent existence of home resources independent of their industrial earnings; the temporary nature of their industrial careers, resulting from the fact that they frequently regard industry as a stopgap pending marriage, and the consequential absence of vital and lifelong interest in industrial conditions which is the moving spirit of an effective trade unionism. These are among the interacting causes of the inferiority of women's earnings; but the widest and most profound cause lies in the fact that women, though of course constituting a minority in the industrial world, are nevertheless competing for employment in such a comparatively restricted area that the competition among them is more intense than it is among male workers. To put it metaphorically, the volume of the flood is less, but its channel is relatively narrower, therefore its action is more destructive.

When we begin to inquire into the reasons for this restriction we find ourselves lost in a perfect maze of speculations. To begin with, obviously the genuine physical limitations of women must necessarily impose a natural barrier to a whole host of occupations. Supposed physical limitations not improbably add to the number. In addition there are less definite social causes, such as differential factory legislation, the inconveniences of a mixed staff, and the liability of women to get married, which must account for a considerable restriction of the demand for their labour. And behind all this

brood many centuries of tradition, custom,

prejudice, and sex jealousy.

With the development of war conditions, however, some very profound modifications have occurred in the conditions sketched above. In the first place, the urgent national necessity of replacing the large numbers of men withdrawn from the labour market has accounted for the dissolution of much irrational prejudice against women's work, and broken down innumerable barriers of custom and tradition. And under the hard schooling of necessity the economic world has learnt that much of the physical and mental incapacity, much of the administrative inconvenience, of women workers has disappeared under the test of actual practice. In the second place, the heavy war mortality among young men must mean that, for a generation at least, large numbers of young women will have to find in the world of industry the main interest of their lives, though how far this fact will affect their industrial psychology it is, of course,

impossible to estimate. When we come, therefore, to re-examine the old causes of inferiority, we find that, while many of them remain presumably unaltered, one or two of them have been profoundly affected. First and foremost, the field in which women are competing for employment has been almost indefinitely extended; and it has been so extended as to include grades of comparatively well-paid work hitherto closed. Women workers remain, for the most part, unorganized, an easy prey to industrial exploitation; but given the will to combine and the power to bargain collectively, circumstances point to the possibility of better conditions for women workers in the near future. But, of course, all this presupposes the continuance of the new opportunities, takes for granted that what is now open will necessarily remain open. Will it? Certainly much of it will, for there is no mending of broken traditions and no re-erecting of shattered illusions; but there is such a possibility as the rebuilding of industrial or professional barriers for reasons other than the actual capacity of women to do the work, and that brings us back to our opening problem, the readjustment of industrial conditions when a demobilized army returns to the labour market.

Now it must be remembered that much of the old exclusion of women from skilled industrial processes was the result of trade union regulations—agreements forced upon the employer by organized male labour. Women were regarded, and not without good reason, as undesirable fellow-workers where a comparatively high standard of life was to be maintained. And when the exigencies of war made it necessary for Mr. Lloyd George to promote the utilization of

female labour in skilled industry, he found himself up against one of the most cherished and hardearned privileges of British trade unionism, and, as is well known, was only able to obtain the suspension of that privilege on the definite understanding that, after the return of peace, the said trade union regulations should be fully and legally re-established. Although in the meanwhile industrial processes have undergone such revolutionary changes of mechanism and organization as to render the literal fulfilment of that pledge appallingly difficult, if not practically impossible, yet Labour holds, as it were, an I.O.U. against the Government, and will be in a position, when the time comes, to demand its discharge in the spirit, if not in the letter. The spirit at the present time, if straws show the way of the wind, is undoubtedly an exclusive one as far as the woman war worker is concerned. Nor is the problem confined to those occupations where definite trade union regulations have been suspended. The woman bank clerk, like the woman engineer, will, in days to come, find herself confronted by a male predecessor whose standard of remuneration, and probably of professional efficiency,

are higher than her own.

Given the above-described circumstances, the situation to be avoided at all costs is one in which the trade unions will be fighting on one side for exclusion, women on the other for employment; the latter backed whole-heartedly by the employers in search of cheap and comparatively docile labour - power, the former backed halfheartedly by the Government in pursuance of pledges exacted in the hour of need. And the victory of either side will spell disaster. If the exclusive principle is carried through, women workers will find themselves at the mercy of trade union regulations for the first time possessing the force of law, and flung back into the old degraded and inadequate industrial channels, where they will compete all the more destructively by reason of their swollen numbers. They will suffer, and their suffering will generate bitterness at a time when all the goodwill in the world will be necessary to face an uncertain future. Incidentally, the economic well-being of the nation will be prejudiced by the wastage of industrial capacity at a time when, with proper foresight and organization, the demand of industry for labour should be insatiable. Limitations on the power of industrial producers to produce will prove as harmful in the hungry years which must follow a world war as they are in face of the rapacious requirements of war itself. On the other hand, if for some reason the spirit of the pledge is never redeemed, if the employers succeed in utilizing the mass of women war workers as a cheap labour supply for post-war industry, and as a catspaw for the deposition of

Labour's aristocracy, the result will be a serious menace to, if not the actual destruction of, such a life standard as over a century of trade union effort has painfully succeeded in building up. Here, too, will be a source of most disastrous and dangerous bitterness, and among that very section of the community, the home-coming army, which merits the first consideration of the nation.

It is not the business of this article to review the various broad lines of action by which the above-described dilemma may be After all, in foreshadowing such a state of affairs at all, a number of uncertain conditions have been taken for granted. It has been presupposed that the War will end decisively before the armies engaged are reduced to inappreciable numbers of able-bodied men. It has been presupposed that the return of peace will find British industry based upon the old system of private ownership of capital and haphazard production in response to the effective demand of individuals. It presupposes no change of heart on the part of employers, Government, or trade unions. But, in view of possible if not probable dangers, the most urgent stress should be laid upon what is an undoubted palliative, if not a fundamental cure for such prospective economic ills; that is, the strenuous promotion and public encouragement of trade unionism among women. What women, by reason of underlying social and economic causes, are not able to do for themselves, the moral and financial support of the public must do for them, and such support should be regarded not merely as an interference in the old struggle between Capital and Labour, but as an attempt to ward off a national danger.

The root of the evil is the old incompatibility between male and female labour in the skilled and semi-skilled grades of industry. That incompatibility has arisen partly from fallacious theorizing of the "wages-fund" type, but largely from the fact that the industrial woman, in spite of the uphill and often successful trade union work which has been accomplished, mainly from above, during the past forty years, is regarded by her male colleague as nature's blackleg. And in spite of the short-sighted policy of hostility to women members displayed by a few trade unions, it is fairly clear that it is not the woman trade unionist that the man is afraid of, but the woman blackleg; not the well-paid woman, but the sweated woman. Now there are three ways of dealing with a blackleg: he may be elbowed out of the industrial world altogether; he may be penned up, as women have been penned up, in the lowest and most undesirable grades; or he may be turned into a trade unionist. As far as women are concerned, the first two are closed by national expediency, humanity, and justice. The third lies open; and in view of the peculiar economic rocks which loom vaguely ahead of us, it may be said without exaggeration that one woman trade union leader is worth a hundred welfare workers.

MARY STOCKS.

Democracy and Public Finance.

N a democracy the services of every citizen are enlisted in the work of government. ■ But the process of establishing democracy is not merely one by which the energies of men are liberated for civic duties. More than liberation in a narrow sense is required, for democracy of the type to which modern States are approaching can only emerge from the complicated social order of an industrialized community, and the political issues which naturally confront the citizen of such a community are puzzling, intricate, and far-reaching, so that the impulses of the ordinary man—even those impulses which are most generous and social in their tendencyneed to be informed and trained before they can be of much use to the State. That is one reason—perhaps the fundamental reason—why democracy and education go hand in hand. But the schoolroom of democracy is as large as the nation itself; and among the many provinces of governmental activity there is none which has a more intimate relation with the education of the citizen than that which the economists describe as "public finance." Every Government department has dealings with the Treasury; and just as money is a standard of value by which men help themselves as buyers and sellers to a more just appreciation of their wants and of the cost of satisfying those wants, so taxation should be, as it were, a common denominator of value by which the citizen can measure and compare the actions of Governments, and so learn to contribute by criticism and suggestion to the improvement of national policy.

Taxation in the hands of a truly democratic statesman would be an instrument by which the real nature of political issues was revealed to the mass of the population. It should be regarded as a convenient medium for translating, so to say, the various forms of governmental enterprise into terms of cost, so that the real cost of the Government's actions may be brought home to every man, and each according to his ability may judge of their value. This principle, which makes of taxation a great lesson in citizenship, has many applications, and it would require

a treatise on public finance to set forth all its bearings. But certain deductions from the principle spring at once to mind and may serve to illustrate the general problem. Direct taxation is more democratic than indirect taxation, for by the former the citizen understands more readily what he is called upon to pay. It leads him at once to consider the objects and methods of governmental expenditure, and he is not sidetracked by the puzzling question whether the increase in the price of taxed commodities is partly due to profiteering. Similarly, if State aid is given to any particular industry, it is more democratic that the assistance should be given by means of bounties than that it should take the form of a protective duty on imports. Bounties are obvious, and their cost can be counted with sufficient accuracy. But protection is an elusive thing, obscure in effect, and lends itself to sophistic misrepresentation. Again, it is clear that democratic principles would inculcate a preference for taxes rather than loans as a means of raising revenue. It is of extreme importance to democracy that the citizen should see Governments as they really are, and judge of them according to fact and not by delusive appearances. But by loans a Government can hide its extravagance: it can throw the cost of its enterprises, or at least the appearance of that cost, upon its successor, so that the plain man only knows that the new Government does not reduce taxation. Especially inimical to democracy is a type of loan to which both Great Britain and France have resorted during the War-a loan at a low rate of interest which is guaranteed free of taxes for ever and a day. By terms of this kind holders of Government stock are made indifferent to future developments of taxation, so far as the incomes they derive from this source are concerned, and to that extent they are robbed of a stimulus to serve the State, as democracy requires that it should be served, with an unsleeping criticism of Government action. The issue of a loan on these conditions is really a measure of financial disfranchisement.

The principle which these examples illustrate is not limited to questions affecting methods of raising money. It bears upon expenditure, too, for public finance is, or should be, a science of spending even more than a science of tax collecting. It is undemocratic, for instance, for a State to pay its soldiers and sailors less than they would on an average earn in civilian life. The real cost of a navy or an army is not the sum of money spent in pay, equipment, and shipbuilding, but the commodities which might have been produced if the resources and men enlisted in the cause of national defence had remained to be employed as capital and labour in ordinary industry. And democratic principles

require that this real cost should be brought home to everybody and made as obvious as possible.

Such in outline is the fundamental principle of democratic finance. But to make of this, or any other political principle, a dogma which must always be applied with jealous and unswerving consistency, would be to sin against the very nature of politics. The statesman ceases to be a statesman the moment he becomes a doctrinaire; and in politics to be uncompromising is merely silly. No man can safely guide the ship of government over the restless ocean of a free people's life if he thinks only of the direct course which is the ideal, and pays no heed to wind and weather and the currents and tides of human affairs. Government must adapt itself to circumstances, and it would be folly for any Chancellor of the Exchequer to apply the principles of democratic finance without modifying them to suit the fact that there are democracies and democracies, or without remembering that the best of democracies so far are only half grown. He should undoubtedly use the Budget as an instrument of democratic education. But the lesson must be suited to the apprehension of the class. Where the mass of the population is highly intelligent and keenly interested in political issues, financial methods need not be so direct or obvious in their teaching, and the effect, for example, of indirect taxation may be sufficiently understood to justify its extensive employment. On the other hand, public opinion may be unaware of the true importance of particular forms of State expenditure, and here it might be disastrous to bring the real cost home to the electors. The gravest peril at the doors of an incipient democracy may be the secret hostility of a neighbouring autocratic State. If the danger, though real, is not sufficiently apparent to make the cost of defence seem worth while to the body of the nation, then a statesman might perhaps be excused if he adopted methods which would hide the real weight of the burden — indirect taxes, loans, even inflated currency and low rates of pay for soldiers. But it must always be remembered that the finance minister who acts thus is not a democrat: at best he is a benevolent despot working in the interests of a future democracy with a human material which is not yet democratic. It would be easy to multiply examples of this kind of compromise. A tax on all incomes is the ideal of democratic finance, because it stimulates political criticism in the whole body of citizens. But in a given condition of affairs it might spoil the future of democracy to substitute a direct tax on wages for an indirect tax on beer, since the demoralizing effects of cheap drink might more than counterbalance the educational advantages of direct taxation. Again, before you can usefully have a tax on wages, wages must be adequate to the high calling of citizenship, and one of the most important of all the modifying factors which the democratic statesman must bear in mind springs from the incompatibility of democracy and poverty. Democracy cannot be perfected so long as the distribution of wealth belongs to an

aristocratic order of things.

Yet, when all is said, and every allowance has been made for the need of such compromise as the facts of the actual world require, the principle remains and is of the essence of the democratic faith. Not only so. In practice statesmen always risk too little and not too much for principle. English political life, at least, is a great school of compromise; and there is little fear that men trained in that school will ever lack a fine feeling for what is practically possible, or fail to be properly alert and skilful in the art of adjusting themselves to existing conditions. The Englishman is nothing if not sensible. He is, perhaps, too frequently immune to doctrine. In this country the real danger is that our statesmen may refuse to be guided by those fundamental principles of democracy which should be their beacon light through the grey mists and damp discouragements of a life of practical statecraft.

R. L.

The Reform of Classical Education.

N recent years various branches of educational study have done much to set their Lown houses in order, with the result that most teachers at least know what is meant by the new geography, the new technical education, and modern methods of teaching history, modern languages, mathematics, and physical science. But can the keenest classic say that his subject has advanced pari passu with the others? To be just, something has been done: attempts have been made to secure uniformity in Latin and Greek pronunciation and in the use of grammatical terms; an excellent series of classical texts has been issued by the Oxford Press; good translations have been published by Mr. Heinemann (" The Loeb Series") and by the Oxford Press; and experiments have been made in the direct method of teaching Latin and Greek. But none of these efforts, save perhaps the translations, counts for much in supplying breadth and vitality to classical learning, or in commending it to the modern mind and the

insistent needs of the new democracy. This sort of reform amounts to little more than getting the office typewriter into good trim, or putting the pens and blotting-pad tidily on the desk.

As a classical teacher of over twenty-five years' standing and an enthusiast all along for classical and humane studies, I trust I am not likely to do injustice to classical teaching. Still, my experience certainly is that there is an inevitable tendency in all grades of teachers to lose sight of the main purposes of our studies. We should be teaching grammar not for its own sake, but because we want our pupils to acquire facility in languages; and languages, in order that they may travel at will through the broad realms of literature; and literature, in its turn, in order that the history of mankind in all its manifold activities may be an open book to them; and that by these steps they may climb to selfrealization as men by satisfying the needs of their own moral, intellectual, and æsthetic faculties. It is no doubt difficult while we are teaching λύω to turn our own eyes and those of our pupils occasionally towards the top of the ladder, and work all the time with characterbuilding in view; but this difficult thing must be done unless we are to be content to lose ourselves in the mazes of grammar and pure linguistics. So completely do the lower stages tend to occupy us that the stage to which at least a sixth-form boy or an undergraduate should attain-I mean a free and stimulating reading of classical literature—is comparatively seldom reached; and still more seldom, of course, are long years of study crowned by the comprehensive view of human life that really "makyth man."

The fact is that, generally speaking, we clear a site, lay solid concreted foundations, and get the structure up to the first two or three brick courses, and then leave it; and this fact compels the reflection that, in the case of the great majority of classically trained youths, a system far less exacting in the lower stages would have enabled them to set foot ultimately on the topmost rung. A reasonable modicum of the "three Rs" and grammar, followed successively by adequate study of the English language, of literature, and of politics and economics treated historically, would almost certainly produce a better-trained man than the truncated system outlined above; and this simply because the course of development is foreseen as a whole. Again, Thomas Arnold, in defending classical education, rightly postulates that the knowledge of the past must not be wholly confined to itself: it must be made to bear upon things around us instead of being allowed to remain totally isolated from them. If we succeed in advancing from elaborate grammar and stylistics to ancient

literature and history, how many of us teachers really manage to bring the ancient into real contact with the modern world? Here, again, we do not complete the circle. And even supposing that we frankly give up the effort, and leave it to our pupils later on to link up for themselves ancient and modern, have we contrived to make them realize vividly the life lived by ancient Greeks and Romans, or do we leave them, at the best, some sort of delicacy of appreciation of literary style? What remains from our reading of Cicero's 'Verrine Orations'? Is it the rhythmical movement of the periods and some knowledge of the statistics of Cicero's technique in sentence-endings, or is it a holy indignation against the tyranny of Verres, and the slack rule of its provinces by the Senatus Romanus? To answer these questions fairly is to admit the great need and to suggest the

necessary directions of reform. It is to this last point—the more vivid realization of ancient life—that I would at present direct attention. Having for the last four years been constantly ruminating this matter, I am now confirmed in the beliefs to which I have come by a book-' Essays on the Reform and Revival of Classical Studies' (Longmans)-written by Henry Browne, S.J., Professor of Greek in University College, Dublin, and furnished with a Preface by Sir Frederic Kenyon. Prof. Browne is a hard-hitting, vigorous enthusiast for classical studies and for reforms in classical teaching. He has, perhaps, some of the defects of his virtues - some roughnesses of style, and a tendency somewhat to undervalue what has been done by classical education hitherto; but as he is in earnest about bringing it more thoroughly into contact with modern needs, and brings from a worldwide search new stimulus, he must be heard. Bookishness-that is, an exaggerated estimate of the importance of the printed word as such—is the prevailing vice of classical education. This atmosphere of unreality must at all costs be dispelled by an enlarged and more consistent appeal to the senses of our students, by an "effort to bring home to them, by the sight of their eyes and by the appeal to their tactile sense, the facts of ancient life." This means the use of the archæological discoveries of the nineteenth century—the Elgin marbles, the Greek vases, the excavations of Schliemann and Evans, Olympia, Pompeii, and Ostia, the inscriptions and papyri, all now, as Sir Frederic Kenyon says, "through improvements in the mechanism of reproduction and publication, at the disposal of the teacher." Obviously we must not attempt to teach archæological science, but archæological results should be used for shedding a bright light on our subjects and bringing them home to the senses and minds of

our students. To quote Prof, Browne on this point:—

"To show our students good photographs of the countries, the buildings, the art and the antiquities of the ancients; to place at their disposal originals or facsimiles of the coins, of the pottery, and the other art-products of the ancients as they are being unearthed by the modern excavator; to give them a clear vision of the great prehistoric fortresses and palaces of Cnossos, Troy, Tiryns, Mycenæ, and Pylos, with the art and architecture of Greece and Rome, as preserved at Olympia, Delphi, Pæstum, Pompeii, and, above all, on the Acropolis of Athens and in the Roman Forum; in a word, to familiarize them with the realities of ancient life instead of confining their attention to mere ideas or merenames of things—this is not a counsel of perfection, but to neglect it is to leave out of our work something of real and vital importance; it is to be guilty of a sin of omission for which no efforts in other directions could wholly atone."

In short, the appeal to and strengthening of the imagination—the main utility of classical training—must be facilitated by what is really the extension of the kindergarten system from children to youths and adults. This reform does not for a moment seek to dispense with a linguistic basis, but aims at giving us back a sense of proportion, a feeling for relative values. It certainly does not mean that we shall replace our Latin prose lessons or lessons in translation from Livy or Virgil or Sophocles for lectures on Sicilian coins or Attic black-figure vases. A stimulus is no stimulus unless it is rightly and comparatively seldom applied.

Unfortunately, for such tangible aids as we want to use we have hitherto been mainly dependent on Germany. Coins, pieces of pottery, casts, electrotypes, photographs, and printed matter of all sorts, the few who were enterprising enough to want them have mostly had to import from Berlin, Leipzig, Vienna, Dresden, or Munich. But all these things matter, and should be readily procurable. To take coins, for example. A handling of Greek coins enables the student of ancient Greece for the first time to realize adequately the vast extent of the Greek world as distinct from the world of the commonly-read Greek books. His whole perspective is changed. "I like," says Prof. Browne,

"to show charts showing the Greek world of books and the Greek world of coins....[The student] will get a real and lasting inkling of the relative importance of, say, the Asiatic Greeks, or those of Magna Græcia and Sicily....of the early Ægina, of the Imperial Cyrene, of the wealthy cities of Thrace and the Propontis....From a very superficial acquaintance with Greek numismatic issues, he will learn how large and how true was the spread of Greek civilization, art, commerce, language, and religion in Egypt, Syria, and even the Far East, during the fourth and third centuries before Christ."

Often as I had read in history of the Roman device to meet the sea-power of Carthage, the boarding-platform introduced by Duilius with notable results at the battle of Mylæ in 260 B.C.,

I was in my 49th year before I at all fully realized its significance, by following up the detailed account of it given by Polybius and having a model constructed to scale. Each school or college should be supplied with a certain amount of such apparatus, to be ready to hand when the occasion arises. This is at present a counsel of perfection, but after the War should be easily capable of realization. Short of that, the system of loan collections, which has already been tried with some success in England, Ireland, and America, is a good alternative. museums, especially, of course, the British Museum, have lately made serious attempts to popularize their great resources, but are very far from being utilized to their full possibilities. The United States is far ahead of us in this respect, and Prof. Browne, who recently went across to investigate on behalf of the British Association, found vast and important results obtained there from the co-operation of museums and teaching institutions. We are duly grateful to the British Museum for its exhibition of objects connected with Greek and Roman life and its excellent printed guide to the same. But we want far more than this, and especially an ample supply of replicas, casts, and models at a really cheap rate. Is there any real reason why a small plaster cast-of two or three inches by two or three inches-of the Chesters Diploma should cost me ten shillings? But classical teachers must bestir themselves and make their demands known; if they really want tangible illustrations of ancient industry and the history of art, of recent excavations, or of the existing vestiges of the Roman occupation of Great Britain, let them say so frequently and with no uncertain voice.

To sum up. A definite demand was made at Leeds last January that Latin and Greek studies should be placed within the reach of pupils from every class of the nation. This demand implies the necessity of frankly recognizing that there is a difference between a complete scheme and an incomplete scheme of classical education, and that an incomplete scheme, if it culminates properly in wide views of human history, is what is required for the needs of thousands of youths and adults. In the second place, the study of antiquity must be linked up with modernity. And, thirdly, we must constantly fight against the deadening influence of bookishness, and aim at a more vivid realization of ancient life, more especially by a discreet use of archæological aids. William Hazlitt's essay 'On the Ignorance of the Learned' has a special message for many of the classical teachers of to-day.

S. E. WINBOLT.

Art and Life. The Shadow.

HE gray-yellow wheat
These hot days of harvest
Stands stiff in the heat
Up in the high field.

With glorious mirth
The great sun, beaming
Down on the earth
In blazing beneficence,

Deepens and warms
The splendid colour
In men's curved arms
As we gather the wheat-sheaves.

On the hill crest
The sun-bright corn-field
For a moment's rest
Dims its intensity.

Her slow sky-way
The cloud climbs lazily;
The edge of the gray
Creeps down, caresses us.

Up from the sod
We, the sun-worshippers,
Lift to our God
Praise for the shadow.

M. D. H.

Antiquities.

HERE are crags upon the moorland where the Druid stones lie low,
And the bones of men lie buried, and the heather breezes blow

From over the clear sky-line as far as a man may see,

From the wide resplendent South lands and the summer-scented sea.

Men have left but a little dust where the Druid stones still lie:

Men are swiftly forgotten; but the false faiths slowly die:

They stand there in the moonlight, cold and a ghostly white,

The faith that feeds on the fear of men who walk alone in the night.

The ling and the heather blossom above the old, old graves,

And the wind is wafted thither from the swift spray-singing waves:

The flowers that fade and wither, the purple and the red,

The blast of the same old struggles blown from the sleep of the dead.

Lancelot Hogben.

The World of Industry.

Labour in 1917.

THE new Labour Party constitution, which is to be discussed and will probably be adopted at the Nottingham Conference this month, is the most important sign of the times. Under the new scheme, the Trade Unions retain their supremacy at the Conference by means of the block vote; but the Executive is to be reformed and strengthened by the inclusion of a fuller representation from Trades Councils and Local Labour Parties and by the reservation of a number of seats for women. Moreover, the Labour Party is now for the first time making a real bid for widespread support from persons who are not Trade Unionists, and is aiming at becoming the representative of all workers "by hand or brain." If this scheme goes through, it will provide machinery for the great chance which political Labour has before it. The machinery suggested is by no means perfect; but it is at least a very great improvement on the present system.

The new Labour Party scheme followed from, and to some extent arose out of, Mr. Henderson's withdrawal from the Government and return to control of the Party. Subsequent Congresses have left no doubt that Mr. Henderson has the great body of Labour opinion with him. Indeed, not only on war questions, but on industrial matters also, there has been a marked leftward drift in the movement, and this drift is continuing and becoming ever more pronounced. On the side of employers the same drift has been observable, and negotiations on Labour matters during the year have been marked by growing intensity of feeling and opinion on both sides.

NATURALLY, with so many pressing problems calling for solution, 1917 was a year of Conferences. In addition to the Labour Party Conference in January and the Trades Union Congress in September, there have been a number of special Conferences called to deal with such matters as Food Prices, Stockholm, and War Aims. One of the most significant developments is the close relation now established between the Trades Union Congress and the Labour Party. Instead of the old Joint Board,

which met rarely and did little, there are now frequent and regular joint meetings of the two Executives, which are doing more and more of their work in common. Joint offices are contemplated at an early date, and it is proposed that the two bodies should jointly conduct a vigorous department for research, information, and publicity, probably by taking over, or co-operating with, the Trade Union Survey of the Fabian Research Department, which is already doing a great deal of the work required. These and other developments which may be expected in the near future will for the first time give to the British Labour Movement a central organization with a reasonable claim to be effective and representative of the working classes.

A FURTHER new factor of very great importance is the entry of the Co-operative Movement, not only into politics, but into very much closer touch with the other sections of the Labour Movement. It is as yet too early to speak at all definitely of this development; but there can be no doubt that it will have far-reaching effects.

THE question of man-power was one of the two main causes of the widespread munition strikes of April and May. The other cause was the introduction by the Government into Parliament of a Bill to legalize dilution on commercial or private work, as well as on war-work. The strikes resulted in the withdrawal of the offending clause, and the Munitions of War Act, 1917, finally included only administrative points and a number of concessions to Labour, including the clause under which the leaving certificate has since been abolished.

Many industries have made agreements with the Government during the year on the "man-power" question. The further large demand now under consideration in connexion with the forthcoming Man-Power Bill may easily raise the whole question in an acute form. The Trade Union objections to anything that savours of industrial conscription have in no way abated, and a proposal to abrogate the

pledges given is hardly likely to be received with equanimity.

THE wages question has naturally loomed large in all industries, since all have been affected by the prodigious rise in prices. In addition to local changes, the miners have received from the Government, through the Coal Controller, a special national advance of is. 6d. per day. The railwaymen have increased their total advance during the War period to 21s., while the munition trades have in most cases received 20s. In both industries it is a regrettable fact that women have received far smaller advances than men, and their case has now for some time been under special consideration by the Government. The Committee on Production and the special Women's Tribunal have continued their work, and the former has instituted for the engineering, shipbuilding, chemical, and certain other industries a regular system of four-monthly wage readjustments called "national advances." Power was taken in the 1917 Munitions Act to make such advances compulsory on all employers in the trades concerned. Munition workers on time-work have further received a special bonus of 12½ per cent. on earnings, designed to redress the balance between their earnings and those of workers on systems of payment by results. This necessary adjustment has led to many demands for the extension of the bonus to trades at present excluded, and the matter is not finally settled as yet.

Disquiet at the steady flow of demands for wage increases has recently led the Government to appoint a new Committee, called the Government Labour Committee, to deal with matters of general Labour policy and to co-ordinate departmental relations to Labour. It is not possible at present to say anything of the working of this body. Its creation was mainly due to a growing feeling that the wages situation was getting out of hand, and to alarmist statements in such papers as *The Times* concerning the seriousness of the financial situation. Consideration of the Labour remedy for this situation—conscription of wealth—does not appear to come within the scope of the Committee's powers.

THE question of the control of industry has been much canvassed on all sides during the year. The immediate interest centres largely round two events, the extraordinarily rapid and extensive growth of the Shop Stewards' Movement and the publication of the Whitley Report. The Shop Stewards' Movement is a most significant sign of the times. The shop steward

has long been a recognized part of the machinery of Trade Unionism; but under the stress of war conditions he has assumed an altogether new importance. The shop steward has been no longer a mere collector of Trade Union dues-he has assumed negotiating and propagandist functions, and the shop stewards over a whole district have shown a tendency to join together in unrecognized Workers' Committees which have arrogated to themselves considerable industrial power. The May strikes were largely conducted, though not in any sense engineered, by the shop stewards; and the Coventry dispute of December centred round the refusal of a certain firm to recognize the shop stewards duly appointed by the men.

THE Coventry dispute brought matters to a head, and negotiations for national recognition of the shop stewards as an integral part of Trade Unionism proceeded between the employers and the Trade Unions during December. An agreement has been signed by the employers with a number of the smaller Trade Unions, but negotiations between the employers and the Amalgamated Society of Engineers, by far the most important society, are not yet completed.

THE Shop Stewards' Movement is essentially a movement for securing control by the workers. The idea of control, both in the form of a demand by the workers and in that of a method of securing "industrial harmony," had come to the front before the publication of the Whitley Report by the Ministry of Reconstruction. The National Guilds League and the shop stewards in different ways, but with an essential unity of immediate purpose, were preaching the need for the workers to wrest from the employers a measure of workshop control, while Mr. Sparkes and others were putting forward ideas for closer co-operation of Capital and Labour through "Industrial Parliaments" or similar bodies. The two ideas are at once similar and antagonistic. Each dwells on the need for an increasing share in control for Labour; but the one bases its policy on the idea of a fundamental antagonism between Capital and Labour, and the other on that of an essential community of interest. The Whitley Report, while it explicitly takes the latter view, is in substance vague, and this vagueness has coloured its reception in Labour circles. The shop stewards have denounced it, and the National Guilds League has issued two series of keenly critical, though not absolutely hostile, memoranda upon it. On the other hand, the Parliamentary Committee has given a guarded approval, provided that the scheme remains purely voluntary.

Adventures in Books.

HAT history never repeats itself is a proposition for which there is about as much to be said as for its contrary, but there is no doubt that the events and phases of the Russian Revolution find some striking parallels in the history of its great French predecessor. While waiting the advent of the Russian Napoleon who is destined (so, at least, we are assured by a section of the press) to convert anarchy into order by the simple procedure of plagiarizing the whift of grape-shot, I have been reading Mrs. Pope-Hennessy's 'Madame Roland: a Study in Revolution' (Nisbet). It is a book which I admire with only two qualifications—its heroine and its price. Mrs. Pope-Hennessy has before now given proof that she can write about the French Revolution, and this biography is a real contribution to the history of a period about which it is so agreeable to read and in which it must have been so unpleasant to live. But sixteen shillings! It is paying dearly for an adventure in these days.

Madame Roland is not the lady whom I would put down in a confession book as my favourite historical character. Mrs. Pope-Hennessy writes with a little asperity of those who call her heroine a prig, but even this admiring biographer admits that unless we realize at once that Madame Roland held no lowly opinion of herself we shall find ourselves "continually knocking up against her self-esteem with a kind of disapproval." That has been, I fancy, the experience of not a few who like to read about the French Revolution. We are warmed by the enthusiasms and the passions of many of the other actors. We palliate the "dingy blackguardism" of Camille Desmoulins, "that headlong, lightly-thinking man." Even the excesses of the extremists we can partly understand. But Madame Roland's life, from her unpleasantly inhuman youth to its tragic and dignified close, may win the admiration, but does not touch the heart. She had all the qualities and all the accompanying defects that constitute the "superior woman. She was as placidly conscious of her superiority as Madame de Staël, as imperturbably selfrighteous as Madame de Maintenon, and as humourlessly ponderous as our own Mrs. Chapone -three ladies whom I am compelled to admire, but for whom I have an intense dislike.

Superiority, indeed, exudes from every page that Madame Roland wrote. Her letters to

her schoolgirl friend, Sophie Cannet, are full of it. "Every day," she says, "my aversion for common souls grows." "I feel," she explains, "that I have a cosmopolitan soul; humanity sentiment make me one with all that breathes. A Caribee interests me, the fate of a Kaffir touches me." She had read Rousseau, you see, and her passion for humanity was because she regarded it as the raw material upon which her own virtuous activities might work. And the picture which she draws of herself nursing her infant daughter, Eudora, with the baby clasped in one hand and a book on political economy in the other, could hardly have been painted except by a woman who wanted to make others feel how superior she was. There is, of course, another side to Madame Roland's character-the side that compels our admiration. It will be found excellently described in Mrs. Pope-Hennessy's pages, but even after reading them I still retain my prejudice against the book's heroine as well as its price.

Madame Roland appealed to "impartial posterity." Mr. John Beattie Crozier, in one of his essays in 'Last Words on Great Issues' (Chapman & Hall), declares himself ready to forgo the homage of posterity in exchange for a little more attention from his contemporaries. Mr. Crozier's case is a peculiar one. His books have been commended by many of the greatest leaders of English thought in our day; reviewers in responsible periodicals have given him such a series of complimentary notices as has not been paralleled in his time on his own subjects in the case of any other writer. And yet, in spite of this, Mr. Crozier can sum up the total effect as follows:—

"That, even after his best books had successively appeared, no Editor of any accredited Review could be found who would accept an article from him, even on his own subjects, for twenty years, until Mr. Courtney, much daring, took him up in *The Fortnightly*; that no publisher could be found to publish his books, except at his own risk and cost, for forty years; that his mere name has never been mentioned more than once in a newspaper among other authors during all that time; nor, so far as he is aware, been even casually mentioned more than half a dozen times in any newspaper, journal, review, or book—except, of course, in their first Press notices."

Mr. Crozier's is, beyond question, a perplexing case. It raises the general question why some books succeed, while others, in no way inferior, fail to stir the public. To this question I can give a precise if unilluminating answer: Nobody

knows. M. Albert Cim has recently made a careful study of this subject in La Revue, and he reaches the conclusion that neither the author's name nor his talent, neither the subject of a book nor its opportune appearance, neither its favourable reception by the critics nor the skill and energy of its publisher, nor even all these combined, can make a book sure of success. His statistics of the books that fail should deter all but the most determined authors. Out of 1,000 books that are published, 600 do not pay their expenses; 200 just cover their cost, leaving nothing for the writer; 100 show a slight profit, and only 100 others justify themselves as articles of commerce. And among this 1,000 books, 650 are forgotten at the end of a year, 150 more at the end of three years, 50 survive to the age of seven, and a dozen, at the most, are spoken of twenty years after their appearance. Truly, the trade of author, like that of him who gathers samphire, is "dreadful."

I am reminded by Mr. William Haller's 'The Early Life of Robert Southey ' (Columbia University Press) that Southey, like Madame Roland, was content to be judged by posterity. "I have a full and well-founded faith in the hope you express," he told one of his correspondents, "that my reputation will indeed stand higher hereafter. I already receive the reward of my own applause, and shall receive the highest rewards as the feelings and truths which I shall enforce produce their effect age after age, so long as our language and our literature endure." Posterity has been in no hurry to verify this forecast. It is decidedly sparing in its favours, and its impartiality is but a background for its carelessness. "You hope to find frens for your dramatic wux in the nex age?" said Mr. Yellowplush to a contemporary dramatist. "Poo, I tell you that the nex age will be wiser and better than this; and do you think it will imply itself a - reading of your trajadies?" Jeremy Bentham had no doubt that he at least would engage its attention, and in his old age he expressed the wish that he could come back to earth at intervals to witness the influence of his works on successive generations. "Hélas! vivront-ils si longtemps, ces ouvrages de Jérémie?"

Misprints sometimes add to the gaiety of those who adventure in books. I have heard of a serious journal which was only saved at the eleventh hour from informing its readers that Swinburne's 'Posthumous Poems' had been edited by "Edmund Goose and Thomas J. Wise," a collocation which one would surmise

to have been reached by some power higher than mere chance. Dr. H. L. Koopman gives some similar perversities of type in 'The Booklover and his Books' (The Boston Book Company). One of the most famous was that which, by mixing the biographies of the Bishop of Oxford and Robert Owen, informed the world that Bishop Wilberforce was "a sceptic as regards religious revelation." Still more extreme was the Vermont paper which in the obituary notice of a man who came from Hull, Mass., stated that "the body was taken to Hell, where the rest of the family are buried." Even the separation of one word into two may have strange results, as in the case of the atheist who, maintaining that "God is nowhere," found himself sponsor for the statement that "God is now here," or the defender of "our grand mother Church" who was made to say "our grandmother Church."

Mr. Stephen Gwynn's little book on Mrs. Humphry Ward in the series of "Writers of the Day " (Nisbet) is a very successful study in appreciative criticism. Its general estimate is that Mrs. Ward is intermittently an artist who has known how to dramatize not so much the life as the intellectual tendencies of her generation. She is the novelist as well as the publicist of the cultivated rich, and she sets out with tact the case for an enlightened Torvism. Her greatest defect is a deplorable competence.

"She seems to have everything that can be acquired by study-including the technical accomplishment of bringing singularly untractable matter into a story. The qualities which she lacks are qualities necessary to survival—the salt of humour, the fire of passion, the personal charm of style."

Among the novels of the month, Mr. Daniel Corkery's 'The Threshold of Quiet' (Fisher Unwin) is much the best I have read. It is hard to explain its charm. One thing at least it possesses in no ordinary degree, and that is atmosphere, an atmosphere which Mr. Corkery creates with an extraordinary economy of resource. Of plot or story in the usual sense there is very little. Yet I feel that I know Martin Coyne and Lily Bresnan more intimately than most other people whom I have only met in books. Mr. Corkery's motto is Thoreau's saying that "the mass of men lead lives of quiet desperation," and his two leading characters illustrate this. The book is rather shapeless in construction, but it has a sincerity and distinction that raise it far above the average. I shall certainly look out for Mr. Corkery's next novel. INDICATOR.

Reviews.

STOPFORD BROOKE.

STOPFORD BROOKE was a charming figure among the minor Victorians, if the phrase may be used without disparagement. One has not the right to call him a great man, even though one can read with pleasure a biography of him running into two volumes. One does think of him, however, as a fine manfine in style, in taste, in personality. He attracts us as good weather does. He makes us think of a poet rather than of a preacher with a message. His message was the message of the poets, not of the theologians. He had no love either for theology or sermons. He might have enjoyed a brilliant career as a fashionable preacher in the Church of England, but he was too much of a poet not to be a heretic. Most of his heresies have become the orthodoxies of our days, but to many of his hearers in St. James's Chapel fifty years ago he seemed, in S'r John Ardagh's phrase, to be "waving the red flag of Revolution even from the pulpit." He unquestionably saw a Promised Land beyond the ugly world of Victorianism in theology and politics. In later life, Dr. Jacks* tells us, he "would quote with approval the saying of Blake, 'Art and Christianity are one.'" He was one of the first of the clergy to do in the pulpit the sort of work that Ruskin and Morris did in literature and the arts. He preached the necessity of a beautiful world. He was an apostle rather of beauty (which was almost a synonym for love) than of duty.

Like Stevenson, he found the world ridden by a harsh creed which tolerated dullness more easily than happiness, and he opposed to this creed the doctrine that "the supreme duty of life is to make other people happy." He applied his doctrine, however, not in the spirit of a martyr, but of an artist. He had himself an almost pagan love for colour and comfort and joy, and he wished to build a new world in which these would be common possessions. He was something of an amateur in his attitude to life. He had the quick eye of a collector for objects of art. He liked pictures and good cigars. "He loved to see women exquisitely dressed, radiant, and adorned with iewels." He was a man who lived in his senses as well as in his soul, and he was by nature antipathetic to the Stoic school of philosophy. Of Matthew Arnold he wrote: "He is very English, the best kind of Englishman, and I contemplate the best Englishman from a distance just as I contemplate the best kind of Roman; but I don't care for either Arnold or Cincinnatus. They are admirable and I praise them,

*Life and Letters of Stopford Brooke. By Lawrence Pearsall Jacks, D.D. 2 vols. (Murray, 15s. net.) but I should not care to live with them." He was himself of too responsive a nature to be attracted by virtue of the statuesque order. He was a sort of Christian Epicurean. Though there is an occasional note of querulousness in his letters, he had a good deal of the vivid sanity of Browning.

He resembled Browning in being a good fighter. He fought to make the Church of England a school of liberal ideas in theology and politics, and, failing, he seceded into the position of a "Liberal Christian." His politics were the fiery politics of an Irishman in days when Irish Nationalism was at the very depths of its unpopularity in this country. On the introduction of coercion in 1880 he wrote to the present Lord Bryce: "And I have lived to see Gladstone do this! And English and Scotch Liberals cheering and hooting with Conservatives and Tories. All the House of Commons hand and glove together to take away from Ireland the rights of a free people, because they have risen against injustice. It is a sin against light, to use the old Calvinist phrase. Just think what history will say of it!

Brooke's politics might be described as those of a fiery moderate. Queen Victoria and the Crown Princess of Prussia were among his admirers, but he had not it in him to become an obliging courtier. His leanings were on the whole republican, as we see in an entry in his diary in 1914: "Kings, emperors, sultans, princes," he wrote, "have their wings clipped now—they are not much better than ostriches kept in captivity for the sake of their feathers. But even so, as they are continually trying to keep up the divine right abomination, with all the ills with which great wealth and personal influence afflict [the world], they are like ulcers in the body of mankind. I have no personal hatred of any of them, but my hatred of that which they represent—the despotic, the monarchical idea—deepens in steady wrath every day I live." After this, it is surprising to find his hostile misreading of the character of the Republican Dilke whom he met at dinner in 1871: "I am not a Dilkean," he wrote to his father. "He spoke like a discontented greengrocer and in the spirit of one. I thought it odiously put. If we can't be gentlemen as well as republicans, I think the price too high to pay for a republic." Brooke's judgments are not free from censoriousness; they are not even free from malice. This touch of vice is, perhaps, welcome, as it saves him from softness, and helps to make his letters among the

brightest we have recently read.

Stopford Brooke is known to all the world as the author of the 'Primer of English Literature,' a work of which 440,500 copies had been printed in England up till the summer of 1916. His own place in literature is indicated

by the success of that excellent little book. One thinks of him as the splendid forerunner of the University Extension lecturer. His larger books on literary subjects, such as that on Tennyson, have the air of good lectures. He addressed his appeal to the educated public rather than to the professional scholar. He had himself faith in the permanence of his large book, 'English Literature from the Beginning to the Norman Conquest.' "I took infinite pains about that book," he said, " and in time to come it will be read." His original contribution to literature is little known nowadays, though Rossetti said of the 'Marriage Day' in 'Riquet of the Tuft': 'It is one of the most beautiful lyrics I have read. Every night I repeat it to myself."

Brooke's poetry pervaded his life, sermons, and literary studies rather than concentrated itself in his poems. His letters, one discovers with surprise, are fuller of his comments on nature and the life about him than of talk about literature. Here and there, however, there is an interesting literary reference, as when he tells how he met Shelley's daughter-in-law, Lady Shelley, at Bournemouth and heard from her a description of Wordsworth: "Wordsworth, she declared, was hideous-a face scarred by smallpox, a rugged, peasant face, broad lips and small eyes, fireless and closed with heavy eyelids. His dress was dreadful, offensively rude, imitating obtrusively a farmer's: a threadbare, rough coat, and shoes ornamented with huge nails." The next day he jots down "a characteristic story of Shelley": "Harriet was far too foolish and thought herself too fine to nurse her child. This horrified S., who thought that nature was violated by her refusal and abhorred a hired nurse. The nurse's soul would enter the child. All day he tried to persuade Harriet to do her duty, walking up and down the room, crooning old songs to the child in his arms. At last, in his despair, and thinking that the passion in him would make a miracle, he pulled his shirt away and tried himself to suckle the child. This is Peewit's tale, and it is Shelley all over. I believe it. It stamps the man."

There have been many interesting biographical works published during the last few months, but Principal Jacks's life of his father-in-law can challenge almost any of them in the attraction both of its subject and its style. Principal Jacks has in these pages brought a man before us in all the contradictory realism of life-charitable and censorious, an idealist and a lover of bric-à-brac, heroic and tender and self-indulgent. There was not much that was Promethean about Stopford Brooke; but there was something angelic. He was one who helped to keep the graces alive in an age of triumphant machinery and the vulgar gospel of success.

LONDON IN THE MAKING.

THAT the attraction of London for topographers, antiquaries, historians, and sociologists is perennial, appears to be proved by the fact that so many writers have been at immense labour to gather and collate information concerning the origins and fortunes of the city, its outward appearance at different stages of development, and the manners and customs of the inhabitants from the earliest times of which we possess records down to our own days. Fitzstephen in the twelfth century; laborious and conscientious Stow (1598, 1599, 1603); his earliest editors, Anthony Munday, Henry Dyson, and others (1618, 1633); the eighteenth-century men, E. Hatton (1708), Strype (1720, 1754-5), "Robert Seymour," i.e., J. Mottley (1743, 1753), Noorthouck (1773), and Pennant (1793); Lysons (1793-6, 1811), Malcolm (1802-7), Allen (1827-37), Cunningham (1849, 1850), Charles Knight, G. W. Thorn-bury, E. Walford, H. B. Wheatley, and Mr. W. J. Loftie; the later editors of Stow (Thoms, H. Morley, and Mr. C. L. Kingsford); Sir Walter Besant, Augustus J. C. Hare, Mr. E. V. Lucas, and others, have successively been drawn to the subject, and have written or edited works devoted to what Cobbett, in an excess of imaginativeness, called "the Great Wen." Only the other day appeared Mr. Ashbee's 'Where the Great City Stands,' dealing with London predominantly from the æsthetic and architectural standpoint: a book in which the phases of the city's upgrowth are conveniently marked out as Roman London; London of the Norman Conquest; the London of Richard II.; the London of Wren and the Whig Aristocracy; Mid-Victorian London; and the Greater London of the twentieth century (Industrial Democracy).

And here we have the late Mr. Harben's work,* or rather that part of it upon which he was engaged at the time of his death. It is only a torso, as Westminster and Southwark are not included; but these two areas may be dealt with separately at some future

The original design was to produce another edition of Stow, to be accompanied by copious notes and illustrations, embodying the results of the author's researches in old records; but this plan was frustrated by the appearance of Mr. Kingsford's book, issued by the Oxford University Press in 1908. The scheme was altered, and the work undoubtedly has suffered in consequence. What would have been a homogeneous survey of the great city plentifully annotated

has had to take the form of a dictionary of disconnected notes upon streets and buildings. The reader, therefore, must not, on the one hand, look for a reproduction of the Tudor outlook and quaint phraseology of Stow, nor, on the other hand, need he expect the fatiguing discursiveness of Strype, or the distinctive characteristics of Noorthouck, Pennant, or Malcolm. The book is still farther removed from the anecdotal style of Cunningham and Wheatley, from surveys like Sir Walter Besant's monumental production, and from works for the general reader, like those of Leigh Hunt, Knight, Thornbury, Hare, and Mr. E. V. Lucas, as well as from unconventional handbooks such as Dickens's 'Dictionary of London,' or works like Mr. Thomas Burke's 'Nights in Town.'

Mr. Harben's book, though wonderful as a witness to the three decades of labour bestowed upon it, is an alphabetized collection of detached notes; and, truth to tell, many of the notes are of the most arid description. So, while we will not affirm that it comes within Charles Lamb's category of "books which are no books," we must describe it as a work of reference—a book "to be tasted" rather than a book for reading.

The author's aim has been "to determine from original records, and by the help of such maps and plans as are available, the location of the streets and buildings of the City of London, to trace their formation and growth, to ascertain by similar means the origin and derivation of the names, and to give further such historical or other information as may serve to illustrate or to elucidate the conclusions arrived at. author has kept especially in view the necessity of ascertaining the earliest recorded use of a name of a thoroughfare. and points out how much more interesting and suggestive earlier names are than later ones; but he reminds the reader that, as many small courts and alleys were unnamed as late as 1720. such earliest recorded use, " as set out in the book," does not necessarily coincide with the date of formation of the thoroughfare.

Among the longer sections in the Dictionary are those under the headings 'Churches,' 'Coldharbour,' 'London Wall (Street),' 'Portsoken Ward,' 'Tower of London,' 'Cripplegate,' Eastcheap,' and under the names of the separate churches (though a few of these, such as St. Etheldreda's, Ely Place, are dismissed with very brief notices).

Numerous curious names confront the reader. Examples are "Hangman's Gains," a street once existing on or near the site of the St. Katherine's Docks; "Horsseleggesforlong" (land near "St. Botolph Alegate," 20 Ed. III.); "Wandayeneslane" (a former name of Turnagain Lane); and "The King's Artirce," or "Artiree," a mansion of the sovereign, temp. Ed. IV.

The thoroughness with which the work has been done is indicated by the mention of the crypt of the Manor of the Rose, under No. 3 Laurence Pountney Hill, destroyed in 1894, and of that discovered during the following year in Britton's Court, Whitefriars Street, a last remaining fragment of the old Carmelite foundation.

The six plans accompanying the text comprise a reproduction of Norden's 'Plan of London,' 1593 (pl. 2); surveys of the precincts of the Blackfriars (pl. 3), the Priory of Holy Trinity, Aldgate (pl. 4), and the Whitefriars (pl. 5)having the modern streets also indicated: a plan (pl. 1) showing the levels of the natural ground, and the traces of the Roman occupation of the city that have been brought to light from time to time during excavations for sewers, railways, and the erection of buildings (these are indicated on the present Ordnance Survey plan of London); and finally, a plan (pl. 6) having superimposed, on the 25-inch Ordnance Survey plan of the present day, in black, the main streets as they existed in Stow's time and prior to the re-building of the City before the Fire (largely from Leake's map, 1666); in blue, the City as reconstructed after the Fire (from Ogilby and Morgan's Survey, 1677); and in red, the changes brought about in the eighteenth century (Horwood's Survey, 1794-9). These excellently reproduced plans are valuable features of the work, which includes also a useful bibliography.

MR. HARDY'S POEMS.

Mr. Hardy's poems* have been written in an age which is in at least one sense fortunate. It may be an exaggeration to talk as though there had been a revival of poetry in the last few years, but there has certainly been a revival of the habit of reading poetry-especially of the habit of reading new poetry. Mr. Hardy resembles some of the new poets in several respects. For one thing, he uses the verse-form with something of the gracelessness of a youth learning to skate. For another, he is intensely self-absorbed: h s poems are, one after another, complaints of the self. He has obviously been greatly influenced by the dramatic lyrics of Browning, but, whereas Browning introduces us to all the sad and joyous households of life, Mr. Hardy seldom takes us to any house that has not its blinds down on account either of a death or marital infidelity. His poems are written in a monotony of mournfulness, of dreary and dripping mournfulness; and even the genius of an imaginative man does not

^{*}A Dictionary of London: being Notes, Topographical and Historical, relating to the Streets and Principal Buildings in the City of London. By Henry A. Harben. With six plans. (Jenkins, 2l. 2s. net.)

^{*}Moments of Vision, and Miscellaneous Verses. By Thomas Hardy. (Macmillan & Co., 6s. net.)

keep them from being, as the Scotsman said of mineral waters, very "lowering," as neither tragic literature nor any other sort of literature has the right to be.

There is nothing to separate Mr. Hardy from the great poetic tradition in the fact that he sees man as a corpse temporarily permitted to walk upright on the surface of the earth. Other poets have meditated as darkly on death. Where Mr. Hardy differs from the mass of tragic poets is that he sees so little grandeur in the gloom. His men and women are hapless and helpless beings, and have scarcely anything in common with the Plutarchian figures in the tragedies of Shakespeare. Mr. Hardy's lovers, again, are seldom happy lovers. He dramatizes their boredom and their unfaithfulness oftener than their joy. The history of love seems almost to be summed up for him in such a line as :-

We were irked by the scene, by our own selves; yes;

or in such a passage as :-

Wasted were two souls in their prime, And great was the waste, that July time When the rain came down.

His songs are songs of division. There is no triumphant daring in any of his lovers to enable them to face the world boldly either in honest love or in sin. In 'The Dolls' we find a little girl asking her mother why she always dresses up her dolls as soldiers (when she does not know any soldiers) instead of as

....gentle ladies
With frills and frocks and curls,
As people dress the dollies
Of other little girls.

Mr. Hardy unfolds the inevitable situation in a second verse:—

Ah—why did she not answer:—
'Because your mammy's heed
Is always gallant soldiers,
As well may be, indeed.
One of them was your daddy,
His name I must not tell;
He's not the dad who lives here,
But one I love too well."

That is bad verse, but it is interesting as evidence of the extent to which Mr. Hardy's vision of the world as a monotony of misfits has become an obsession with him. Love appears as a ruinous misfortune rather than a saving grace in most of his poems. It comes and goes with the wind, and man suffers through it rather than is exalted by it into secure godhead. Mr. Hardy has never got beyond the doubting philosophy of love which he expresses in the fine poem 'The Wind's Prophecy,' which begins:—

I tr avel on by barren farms, And gulls glnt out like silver flecks Agai nst a cloud that speaks of wrecks, And bellies down with black alarms. I say: "Thus from my lady's arms I go; those arms I love the best!" The wind replies from dip and rise, "Nay; towards her arms thou journeyest."

In Mr. Hardy's philosophy the lover, helpless in his inconstancy, is deceived even in the hour of his love.

'The Wind's Prophecy' is interesting, however, not only for the light it throws on Mr. Hardy's vision of life, but because it reminds us that in his genius Mr. Hardy is essentially an interpreter of the earth. One may be allowed to isolate the little passages of landscape in the poem from the rest in order to enable his gift as a painter and poet to reveal itself the better. Here is the world seen under the light of imagination, though unquestionably of pessimistic imagination:—

A distant verge morosely gray Appears, while clots of flying foam Break from its muddy monochrome, And a light blinks up far away.

From tides the lofty coastlands screen Come smitings like the slam of doors, Or hammerings on hollow floors, As the swell cleaves through caves unseen.

The all-prevailing clouds exclude The one quick timorous transient star; The waves outside where breakers are Huzza like a mad multitude.

Yonder the headland vulturine Snores like a giant in his sleep, And every chasm and every steep Blackens as wakes each pharos-shine.

There, if anywhere in Mr. Hardy's new book, is the mark of the brooding and imaginative vision of poetry. Almost can we believe that Mr. Hardy's world, so passionately is it seen, is beautiful. While he writes of the scene of things he is impressionable as a child. Nature is still in a measure grand for him in a world of drab destinies. It is only when he turns to human beings and his philosophy about them that he can write such lines as:—

"Where the sun ups it, mist-imbued," I cry, "there reigns the star for me!" The wind outshrieks from points and peaks:

"Here westward, where it downs, mean ye!"

Mr. Hardy's philosophy, however, pessimistic though it is, casts a queer sort of spell over his poems. His book, we feel, is the truthful record of a man's soul. It is a statement of experience in terms of a philosophy of disaster. And even in the drear night of this philosophy, faith seems to peep out at moments like a star. Mr. Hardy's war poems communicate the spirit of the fighter, though most of his work in prose and verse has communicated rather the

spirit of the victim. His poem 'For Life I Had Never Cared Greatly' ends in a refusal on the part of the poet to accept failure as his destiny:—

And so, the rough highway forgetting, I face hill and dale,

Regarding the sky,
Regarding the vision on high,
And thus re-illumed have no humour for
letting
My pilgrimage fail.

Perhaps, after all, it is foolish to call any man a pessimist who takes the trouble to express his pessimism in works of art. If one were a real pessimist, one would hardly think it worth while to write books. While there is literature there is hope. To write is itself an act of faith. Apart from this, Mr. Hardy, in that beautiful Christmas reverie 'The Oxen,' comes as near faith, perhaps, as the average man of this unsettled hour. But the mood of 'The Oxen' is, unhappily, not

A SURVEY OF FOREIGN POLICY.

characteristic of him.

'A CENTURY OF BRITISH FOREIGN POLICY '* consists of two essays, one by Canon Masterman, the other by Mr. Gooch, giving a clear and interesting summary of our foreign policy since Waterloo. It is not easy to make a fair survey, and it is impossible to make a complete survey, of this period in a hundred pages, but the writers may be congratulated on the success with which they have achieved their purpose, and the book is a very useful introductory study.

Mr. Gooch brings his essay down to the outbreak of the War, and he is therefore discussing events of which the full explanation is impossible until we have before us a great deal of material that is still undisclosed. Within the limits that are prescribed he deals in a judicial temper with his subject, and his narrative is lucid and very readable. There is one sentence (and that an important one) in his comment on the negotiations of July, 1914, which we think is of doubtful accuracy: "It is beyond the scope of this chapter to discuss the causes of the War or to describe the course of British policy in the fateful days preceding its outbreak. Alone of European statesmen the Foreign Secretary worked day and night for the preservation of peace; but he was handicapped by the undefined character of our friendship with France." If Mr. Gooch means that Germany would never have made war if Great Britain and France had been united in a

^{*}A Century of British Foreign Policy. By G. P. Gooch and J. H. B. Masterman. (Council for Study of International Relations, 2s. 6d.)

bugh a good deal of education would ve been necessary to make the nation cept so sharp a departure from our licy. Otherwise it is difficult to see we the actual friendship with France.

ROADS, INNS, PILGRIMS, AND SHRINES.

MR. JAMES JOHN HISSEY is an unconventional motorist who resists the second state of the second state of

temptation to cover so many miles in such and such a "record" time. He "hastens slowly," avoids towns, declines to follow itineraries marked out by others, spurns the commonplace, pursues the less familiar, bans guide-books, and relies on maps alone. Provision for the journey's needs apart, his plan of travel is a veritable lucus a non lucendo. He prearranges naught; and, his day begun, his goal is—"anywhere."

This, at all events, is Mr. Hissey's

This, at all events, is Mr. Hissey's claim; but it is obvious that he planned the tour described in his present book * so far as to guide his docile car through the eastern and east central shires of England, rather than towards the western counties and Wales, of which he wrote in

The author hopes that he does not "talk too much about inns." But we heartily echo Thackeray's apophthegm that they make very good talk; and, dissociating ourselves from the altiloquence of him who said, "There is nothing which has yet been contrived by man by which so much happiness is produced as by a good tavern or inn," we yet find it possible to affirm, with Dr. Syntax:—

How oft doth man, by care oppressed, Find in an inn a place of rest!

or even discover, with William Shenstone, our "warmest welcome at an We agree with the author as to the desirability of the better preservation of our old inns (p. 171). There are scores of villages and towns where, after the church or churches and feudal or similar monuments, the inns are the oldest and most picturesque remnants of the past. Not a few hostelries have indisputable historical or literary associations, but some people do not value them. Mr. Belloc, in his introduction 'On Walking,' contributed to 'The Footpath-Way' (1911), gives a list of "monsters who are the enemies of inns," including the man "who thinks them places into which to slink to drink," and him who thinks them places to be reached by train and "there to put on fine clothes for dinner and to be waited upon by Germans."

But our author writes of much more than inns. He discourses of moated houses, mediæval castles, haunted rooms, churches with timber pillars, old towngates, and the Ypres Tower at Rye. Of a misguided representative of a former existing "seamy side" of the Brandon flint industry, Mr. Hissey relates that on visiting a museum collection of carefully preserved implements of the Stone Age, the flint knapper turned to a

companion and remarked, sotto voce, "Them's all my making."

"Martin Abbey," by the side of the Wandle (p. 22), in Mr. Hissey's old map, is, we suggest, Merton Abbey. "Somerby" (pp. 178-9) is evidently Somersby—the birthplace of Tennyson, though this is not mentioned in the book. The "Diviners' Club" (p. 187) may have been a sodality of waterdiviners, or dowsers-or was it a gathering of cronies interested in the discussion of, or learned in, theological subjects? There is precedent for the latter signification of the word "diviner." The abbey which gave the name to Abbey Wood, marked in a map men-tioned by Mr. Hissey "Lessness," was that of Lesnes, stated in Hasted's 'Kent' to have been founded in 1178 by Richard de Lucy, Chief Justice of England. Variants of this name, mentioned by Hasted, are "Leasnes" and "Leason." It is well known that William Penn lived in Sussex; and the fewness of visitors to the Blue Idol meeting - house, in Thakeham parish, may be accounted for by the comparative inaccessibility of the place, and the circumstance that there is more of interest in the Buckinghamshire area, where Penn's grave and several other venerated spots are situated

The author remarks that besides Pevensey he knows not another instance of a Norman castle built within the remains of a Roman camp. But these strong and shrewdly-chosen Roman stations were not seldom made use of at later dates. Dover Castle is an example. At Reculver (Regulbium), Ethelbert built himself a palace, and later a monastery arose within the enclosure. At Richborough (Rutupiæ) in the circumvallated area was set up a church or chapel, mentioned by Leland as standing in his day. And the Romans themselves did not disdain to build where pre-Roman military works existed

In some respects of a kindred nature is the book by Mr. Francis Watt;* but instead of journeying as a leisurely motorist, Mr. Watt is a rider of the iron horse. It is of interest to contrast the outlook of the automobilist and tha cyclist, as indicated in these two books; but Mr. Watt's 'Canterbury Pilgrims and their Ways' labours under the disadvantage that many better books have been written on more or less the same subjects. Concerning the mediæval cult of St. Thomas of Canter-Concerning the bury, the alleged miracles, the roads followed by the pilgrims to Becket's shrine, and the sudden collapse of the systematized visits to the tomb, there is indeed no end "of the making of books." 'The Pilgrims' Way,' by Mrs. Julia Ady (Julia Cartwright), Mr. H. Snowden Ward's 'The Canterbury

firm military alliance, he may be right, though a good deal of education would have been necessary to make the nation accept so sharp a departure from our policy. Otherwise it is difficult to see how the actual friendship with France hampered Sir Edward Grey's efforts for peace. Germany in those last days was bent on a policy which would have obliged us to go to war, even if we had been allied to Germany and hostile to France, to resist her designs on the freedom of Europe. If Sir Edward Grey erred, he erred in taking too tolerant a view of her intentions. It might perhaps be said of our relations with France that it is easy to imagine circumstances in which they would have been an embarrassment. They might have compelled us to say "yes" or "no" under conditions in which to say "yes" would have meant accepting a responsibility for a doubtful policy, and to say " no might have looked like abandoning a friend. But in actual fact Germany released us from all these difficulties by taking a course which would have made any answer but "yes" sheer treason to Europe, quite apart from any question of obligation to France. Nobody can read these essays without

feeling that there is no hope for the world unless the relations of nations are put on a new footing. The difficulties inherent in forming a League of Nations are obvious enough, but civilization has to overcome them or run the risk of sheer collapse. At present no nation has any guiding policy except the spirit of fear or the spirit of greed. Our own record, with the Cyprus Convention and the South African War, is black enough, and yet it is true that, if we except South-Eastern Europe, we have been a steadying influence in Europe, inclining to the interests of freedom. Our temptations have been outside, and there we have a mixed history. Neither of the writers points out, as General Smuts has done, the immense debt that our reputation owes to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman for his act of restitution, without which we should stand before the world to-day as first-class hypocrites. The worst feature of German politics is the want of men outside the ranks of a little band of Socialists who will rebuke their country when it does wrong. Germany has no monopoly of the spirit of "real politics," but no country is so poor in the forces of resistance. For the future we have to organize these forces throughout the world, and to see that the "real politics" of Governments, diplomatists, and financiers are checked and controlled by the common will of the millions of Europeans to whose hopes and ideals "real politics" are a deadly poison. This very useful and interesting little book should be read side by side with the admirable manifesto on war aims issued by the Labour Party.

^{*}The Road and the Inn. By James John Hissey. (Macmillan & Co., 10s. net.)

y James John Co., 10s. net.) *Canterbury Pilgrims and their Ways. By Francis Watt. (Methuen & Co., 7s. 6d. net.)

Pilgrims,' Mr. Belloc's 'The Old Road,' Mr. Sidney Heath's 'Pilgrim Life in the Middle Ages,' and Dean Stanley's 'Historical Memorials of Canterbury,' are a few works which occur to us. From the nature of the case, no modern writer has been able to approach Chaucer. His pictures of the knight, the yeman, the prioresse, the frankeleyn, the persoun, the maunciple, the doctour of phisyk, and the rest, are with us for all time, as incomparable portraits of typical units in the motley crowds that journeyed to the famous shrine.

Nevertheless, there are some good chapters in Mr. Watt's book. struggle between the two strong men, the King and the Chancellor, with their clashing ideals, is well depicted. So, also, is the long rivalry between St. Augustine's-within the precincts of which had long lain the bones of the first Archbishop of Canterbury, of Ethelbert, Bertha, and many another famous or holy personage—and Christ Church, which the assassination of Becket was to invest with such peculiar sanctity as completely to eclipse the glory of St. Augustine's. That, three and a half centuries later, the veneration shown to Becket's memory was assailed by King Henry VIII. with peculiar vehemence, is probably due as much to the fact that that sovereign's relations with Wolsey had been similar to those of the Angevin King and his Chancellor, as to Henry VIII.'s irrepressible rapacity. Be that as it may, the Tudor monarch's methods were effectual: he asserted that Becket had been a "rebel and traitor to his prince"; and the ordinance which in 1536 extinguished the Feast of the Translation of the Feast of the Translation of St. Thomas the Martyr fell like a bolt from the blue upon the monks, pilgrims, and all others concerned. In 1538 the work was completed by the destruction and looting of the shrine.

As for the tragedy of 1170, there were many versions and many interpretations; and in Principal Jacks's 'Life and Letters of Stopford Brooke' (noticed on p. 32) Dean Stanley is quoted, in one of Brooke's letters, as saying: "'When I first got the appointment of Dean of Canterbury, I hesitated about taking it....But when I said yes, my first thought was '-here he rubbed his hands together with excitement as he spoke it, 'now I shall know all about the murder.'" Becket was possessed of an intuitive sense of the dramatic, and he was a "man of affairs," keenly alive to everything that might conduce to the well-being of his Church. He had "nursed" his quarrel with the King; he invited his fate; and, if we can believe the monkish accounts, nothing in Becket's stormy career became him better than the manner in which he prepared for and met his tragical death. It is no matter for wonder that eightyfour churches in England alone were dedicated to Becket's memory. At least

one modern church in London (R.C.) is dedicated to St. Thomas of Canterbury; and St. Thomas's Hospital is named after him.

Although, by the order of Thomas Cromwell, Becket's remains had been burnt in 1538, certain bones discovered in 1888 in the Canterbury crypt were by some believed to be those of the archbishop; but Mr. Michael Beazeley ('The Canterbury Bones,' 1915) has shown that they were the remains of William de Audeville, Abbot of Evesham, who died in 1159, eleven years before

Becket was murdered.

The literary quality of Mr. Watt's book leaves something to be desired. There are indications of imperfect revision, and slips occur which with more care could have been avoided. Poets' Corner is not the "north," but the south transept of Westminster Abbey (p. 73). There is a considerable amount of old work at Southwark Cathedral (p. 237), in the structure of the choir, the transepts, and in the beautiful chapel wherein is the tomb of Bishop Lancelot Andrewes. Rochester possesses only one castle (p. 251). Chichester, Southampton, York, Warwick, King's Lynn, Totnes, Lincoln, Hereford, and Shrewsbury are not mentioned among towns which possess walls, fragments of walls, or gates (p. 87). At Coventry there are, or were a few years since, slight remains of two gates. On p. 144 "interned" should apparently be interred; and on p. 273 the use of the word "summit" is mystifying to the reader. Some of the later chapters are too much of the guide-book type for a work of this character. The book badly wants a map; and the frontispiece conveys an inadequate idea of the noble building it represents.

WOMEN PAST AND FUTURE.

BETWEEN the history of the long struggle for women's suffrage and the feminist programmes which now look on to the future there is a great gulf fixed. Miss Metcalfe's book comes to us as from a far-off region of barbarism, which, paradoxical as it may sound, has been destroyed during the Great War. 'Woman's Effort'* is the story of the struggle in Parliament and in the country for the granting of the vote, and "militancy" fills the largest place in its pages. 'The Making of Women'*

*Woman's Effort: a Chronicle of British Women's Fifty Years' Struggle for Citizenship (1865-1914). By A. E. Metcalfe, late H.M.I. (Secondary Schools). (Oxford, Blackwell, 3s. 6d. net.)

The Making of Women: Oxford Essays in Feminism. By A. Maude Royden and others. Edited by Victor Gollancz. (Allen & Unwin, 4s. 6d. net.)

deals mainly with what will yet remain to be done when the vote has been obtained. The one tells a story of political rebellion and agitation, the other predicts a social Reconstruction. It is amazing that such a book as Miss Metcalfe's should need to form a chapter in the history of a country which prides itself upon its democratic, liberal, and humane principles. It is impossible here to go back into the miserable details of ill-kept faith on the part of ministers, of violated pledges by members of Parliament, of the straining of law and procedure which occurred again and again during the trials of the "Suffragettes," of the exposure of some of the most persistent evils of our prisonsystem. But it is salutary that the tale should be told, and that the book should be read. Our much-vaunted liberty is safe enough when it is not confronted by prejudice; our judicial system will normally bear the closest inspection, though it may at times be a clumsy instrument. But if once the strong blast of prejudice, the insidious breath of outraged social convention, be let loose, our systems break down. Ill-faith, injustice, petty quibbling, biased judgments, serious cruelty-all these were meted out to the women whom public opinion condemned. Miss Metcalfe's book forms an interesting companion to Mrs. Hobhouse's 'I Appeal unto Cæsar.' The War saved the Government from a complete impasse as regards the Suffragettes, only in order to create a like breakdown of "British justice" with regard to the conscientious objector.

It is not necessary to agree with the "militants" in their justification of violence in political agitation; our point is merely that agitation, if sufficiently clever and persistent, need not expect justice even according to the letter of the law. The more sane of the militants used violence simply in order to demonstrate that the use of force is no sound instrument of government. The State was practically powerless against a handful of absolutely determined women. Short of allowing them to die in prison, and then suppressing by arms the riots which would have ensued, it was helpless. And the conclusion of the whole matter is that, right or wrong, "utterly without our consent we could be at no man's commandment living." conclusion, of course, is Hooker's-not a modern feminist's-but it may well

be adapted.

Miss Metcalfe, as has been said, gives most of her space and emphasis to the "militant" Suffragists; she passes over, with very inadequate comment, the more statesmanlike work of the non-militant societies; there are many serious omissions, amounting almost to misrepresentation, on this side of the question. These omissions considerably detract from the value of what is otherwise a sound historical record of one of

the least creditable phases by which "Freedom slowly broadens down" in the good old Victorian fashion.

'The Making of Women' takes us into a different atmosphere. It is the work of what perhaps we may call the "middle generation" of the feminists of to-day—women who were not pioneers, and yet have borne the burden of struggle, the bitterness of disappointment, the harshness of opposition, to an extent which is utterly unknown to the present generation. Yet there is no bitterness, no weariness, in these writers. The book is notable chiefly as a courageous facing of the future—a testimony to the feminists' willingness to see and to help on wide-reaching social changes.

The editor strikes the keynote when he claims that the aims of women "can only be completely attained when the conditions governing the employment of men, no less than women, have been radically altered," or, again, in his demand that not only shall women find the carrière ouverte aux talens, but that all work for which they are suited shall be so organized that "part of it shall be done under conditions specially adapted to the physiological and psychological peculiarities of women as opposed to men." It is no mere formal and fallacious equality which is claimed in these essays. A frank admission of differences and a bold claim for their consideration form a sounder method of

Miss Maude Rovden's essay entitled 'Modern Love' begins with the fundamental assumptions and principles. The writer pleads for a higher conception of marriage, in which physical desire should be frankly acknowledged on both sides, in which an artificial "purity" or absence of passion should no longer be demanded from the woman-a conception in which the "desire for mastery shall give way to mutual understanding, freedom, reverence, a decent respect for "that fundamental loneliness into which we are born." With such a conception of marriage women will more readily go on to admit that motherhood is not a mere episode in life, but their chief work and most absorbing interest. Miss Royden admits -what some women may wish to contest-that child-bearing uses up a woman's vital creative force, and that women may need, like all artists or scholars, to be ascetic at some point, in the truest interest of their art or function.

Mr. Ralph Rooper contributes an article on 'Women Enfranchised' in the various States in which the vote has already been won. He begins by admitting that "it is as well to face the fact that the winning of the vote will be of little practical value to women," although the examples he quotes of "woman's legislation" in some of the United States go far to disprove his

own admission. The real value of the franchise to women is that it is one more big step in the removal of the disabilities which separate class from class

The most weighty essays of the collection, however, deal with the subject of the remuneration of women's services. Miss Rathbone writes directly under this title, Miss Royden advocates the endowment of motherhood, and a very careful article on equality of wages is reprinted from *The Round Table* of March, 1916. We are glad to see this most crucial question made the subject of serious inquiry; to our mind it is the most difficult problem with which Labour is confronted, assuming that a wage-system must be continued.

If wages are to be calculated with due regard to a decent standard of living, must the standard be that of the family or of the individual? Can we assume that men have dependents, women none? If we endow motherhood, leaving both men and women earning an equal individual wage, what becomes of other dependents? And what will be the final result upon men's wages, and the general position of Labour in the State? Will men welcome, or consent to, the reduction of wages which seems likely to follow the endowment of motherhood? These are questions which the advocates of mothers' pensions rarely face and which need facing. Miss Rathbone's arguments against equality of pay are very weighty (some of them have recently appeared elsewhere), but not quite convincing; they show very clearly that "equal work" is a more complex matter than often appears, and that women are unwise to claim that work is equal in value without careful investigation. But on the whole The Round Table article makes good the contention that women ought to aim at a common policy with men in the matter of wages, that a double standard is infinitely harmful both economically and socially.

The popular remedy of the moment—endowment of motherhood—is a genuine attempt to meet a very serious difficulty. But in one way it might well prove pernicious. It would deprive the working-class mother of her most powerful means of defence against excessive child-bearing, and if we are to believe the Co-operative Women's testimony in 'Maternity,' this is one of the severest trials of the poorer mothers. Increased population may be needed after the War, but the endowment of mothers might well bring increase only, without improvement of quality.

Miss Elinor Burns has an interesting essay on 'Education.' "More liberty and yet more liberty" perhaps sums up her conclusions. The education of girls has been deliberately ascetic in certain directions, and the effect has been an artificial cramping of woman's powers. There is much sound criticism in this

article, but there are also some unaccountable statements. Why does the writer speak of the "public school" for girls as opposed to the High School, and make an exception of "the few public schools which are admittedly a step to the University"? The women's colleges of Oxford and Cambridge draw their students from almost every High School throughout the land, and from not a few private schools, although the numbers from each are few. "The cheap and narrow limits of the ordinary high school education" produce results distinctly better than the expensive schools of the "public school" type. After some years of close observation, the present reviewer believes that "the loneliness and sense of being socially a stranger, which pursues the County Council scholar at Oxford or Cambridge," is a myth. The average woman student does not know (and does not care) which are the County Council scholars in her college. Miss Burns's dictum that "the University age for women should be lower—16 or 17, rather than 19 or 20 (and often much later) as it is at present," is singularly divorced from experience. The experiment of taking girls under 18 to work at the Honours courses of a University has always been a failure. (It must be remembered that normally the women students of Oxford and Cambridge are admitted only in order to take the Honours courses.) To lower the University age would throw back the strain of serious work upon a girl to the age when she is least fitted to bear it, and might have serious consequences upon the health of women. Moreover, the average girl who finishes her University work at the age of 22 or 23 is constantly told that she is "too young" for the professional work which she wishes to take up. There is much truth in the remark of the student who said: " Apparently the only thing to do when one goes down is to grow to be 25 as quickly as possible." It is undoubtedly true that many girls of 19 or 20 are absurdly undeveloped as the result of staying at school too long, but the remedy might well be sought in an interval of work or play or travel between school and college-to the great advantage of a girl's moral and intellectual development. When 18 is the age - limit suggested for continuation schools, it seems hardly advisable to recommend 16 as the leaving age for Secondary and High School girls, for the University entrance-age practically tends to rule the leaving age for all.

These, however, are only isolated points in an essay which contains in it many good things and many wise counsels and criticisms. It may be noted that the author's grudge against any form of asceticism is at variance with Miss Royden's views as to the possibility that a woman may need to choose deliberately whether she will be "a

typewriter or a mother." That perhaps leads up to the most serious criticism of the book. It is a collection of essays on closely inter-related subjects, and though the opinions thus gathered together are mainly harmonious, they do not form a coherent whole. The reader sooner or later begins to wish that Miss Rathbone or Miss Royden or Miss Burns could have treated all these subjects and shown that to touch one involves dealing with all the others. As it is, the collection, like so many others now being published, reminds one irresistibly of

the little shop Where you could buy goloshes, Or Lessing, or a chop:

all good things in their way, but lacking in unity. One final objection: why is this volume described as 'Oxford Essays'? It is true that some of the writers were distinguished members of Oxford women's colleges, but their chief work for many years has lain elsewhere. We venture to think that the sub-title is unnecessary and misleading.

Communications.

CROWN COLONIES AND IN-CREASED PRODUCTION.

EARLY in the present year a body called the Empire Development Committee was formed in London. Its Chairman was the late Right Hon. Sir Starr Jameson, Bart., C.B., Chairman of the British South Africa Company. Its Hon. Secretary is Mr. H. Wilson Fox, M.P., one of the Directors of that Company. The other members include gentlemen prominent in political, financial, or social life. Four are members of the British Government.

It is not easy to state the proposals of the Committee in exact terms. They have varied from time to time. In all of them, however, so far as we have been able to discover from speeches by members of the Committee and literature issuing from its Publicity Department, two features are included. The first is that the British Government should set up in the Crown Colonies a body of concessionnaires, business men paid partly by commission and enjoying a privileged position before the law, who should carry on industries in those Colonies on condition of returning a percentage of the profits, not to the Government of the Colony and for the benefit of the Colony, but to the British Government, in reduction of the war debt. The second is that a beginning should be made with this policy in West Africa. As persons intimately connected with the last-named country, we venture to address you on these proposals. There seems the more reason for this inasmuch as no member of the

Committee, so far as we can learn, has personal experience of, while few, if any, are even indirectly connected with, West Africa.

There is nothing in the present condition or prospects of British African Colonies to justify this new policy, which is simply a return to the old plantation" system, in which dependencies were looked upon as estates to be exploited for the benefit of the more vigorous governing country. In the past the attempt to secure profit for the State at the expense of weaker races has everywhere failed, and in the present advanced state of intelligence in our African Colonies would inevitably produce discontent.

The policy is also at variance with the history of our own moral development, which involves the ultimate relation of Africans to the white races; it lowers our standard of justice, and is a negation of the established principle of " Equality

of opportunity."

The system of government which has grown up in West Africa under the administration of the Colonial Office has had certain broad results. The greatest is profound political peace, which continues even in such a testing time as this. Subsidiary results are steady increases in exports and imports, with consequent benefits to British manufacturers. The native producers, thanks to increasing wants met by increasing production-thanks also to the patient efforts of the Colonial Governments, especially the various Agricultural Departments-are continually increasing the quantity and improving the quality of their output. As proof of this we may quote the recent statement of the Administrator of the British Zone of Occupation in Togoland, that during the first year of our occupation the land put under cultivation was greater by one-third than that in the last complete year of German rule; the statement by Sir Hugh Clifford, K.C.M.G., Governor of the Gold Coast, that "cocoa cultivation in the Gold Coast and in Ashanti "-now the world's chief producing area of cocoa—" is a purely native industry"; and the statement by the Colonial Secretary, the Right Hon. Walter Long, in the House of Commons last month, that in West Africa "the supply of palm kernels and the palm oil brought forward by the natives during the War is considerably greater than the amount for which it has hitherto been possible to provide freight."

The central principles of the policy which has had these results are absence of forced labour, observance of the natives' land laws and customs, and

freedom of trade. It is obvious that these elementary, vital principles would be profoundly modified, if not reversed, if the policy of the Empire Resources Development Committee were to be applied. Land

being held by the tribe in common in West Africa, it follows that, in practice, bodies enjoying special Governmental privileges cannot be set up without involving interference with the natives' land and labour. The concessionnaires would be identified with the Government in the native mind. It is significant in this connexion to notice that the unfortunate fact that four members of the British Government are on the Committee is taken by the native pressof West Africa-every organ of which condemns the proposals as an utterly indefensible attack upon private rightas an indication that the policy of the Committee is the policy of the British Government. We believe that such an impression is as groundless in fact as it is injurious to the fair fame of Great Britain; and we readily bear testimony to the fact that whenever a Minister representing the Colonial Office has referred to the Committee's proposals, his language, like Mr. Long's above quoted, has been unfavourable to the Committee's project.

There is a further reason for calling attention to this matter at the present time. If the forces and civilian populations of the Allied nations are to be properly fed during a prolonged war, it is urgently necessary that the important foodstuffs coming from West Africa should be largely increased. From this point of view nothing could be more harmful to Imperial and Allied interests than a propaganda which shakes the confidence of the producers in the root principles of British administration.

Our French ally, faced in French West Africa with a precisely similar situation, has dealt with it on lines the opposite of those suggested by the Empire Resources Development Committee. A circular just issued by his Excellency the Governor-General sets forth that, "in order to meet the mother country's urgent needs, the Ministry of Supplies purchases the whole of the crops of French West Africa. The Minister of the Colonies on his part undertakes to stimulate and intensify production wherever possible; and this he proposes to do by paying the producers 'largely and loyally,' the object being to 'produce, and produce largely,' and it therefore is necessary to interest the producer'; by frequent visits of political officers to the producing areas; by encouragement of merchants; and by absolute noninterference in buying or selling by the Government directly.

It is our conviction that adoption of a like policy in British West Africa will lead to the best possible results

W. NICHOLL, The Association of Chairman E. V. CROOKS, Merchants. West African Secretary

14 Castle Street, Liverpool. December, 1917.



SAVE COAL

dustry and commerce, and the scientific utilization of our coal supplies—which are being drained at an alarming rate in proportion to those of our rivals—is a subject which calls for serious consideration by all concerned in the management of an industrial or a commercial undertaking or of a home.

To burn crude coal is unscientific and criminally wasteful: to burn gas—its purified essence—ensures all-round economy and is as beneficial to the individual as to the nation.

Coal is in various ways essential to our industrial supremacy: it is the mainstay of our manufactures, and as an export assists more than any other commodity in keeping up the rate of exchange.

For posterity's sake, then, as well as for our own our motto should be "Save Coal."

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- "Christian Politics and War," the late Frederick Seebohm, LL.D., D.Litt.
- "Some Memories of Uden," Beatrice Harraden, B.A.
- "Wordsworth: the Heroic Poet of his Age," William Graveson.
- "John Bright and War," Margaret E. Hirst.
- "The Bronte-Wheelwright Friendship," Joseph J. Green.
- "The Sinn Fein Rising: A Narrative and Some Reflections," Frederick W. Pim.
- "Professor Silvanus Thompson and His Message," by the Editor.
- "The Garden of Persia," George Lloyd Hodgkin, B.A.
- "The Problem of Armament and a League of Nations," G. Lowes Dickinson, M.A.
- "Thoughts on Punishment," Leonard Doncaster, D.Sc., F.R.S.
- "Educational Ideals," Ernest E. Unwin, M.A., M.Sc.
- "Tom Bryan: an Educational Pioneer," Arnold S. Rowntree, M.P.

The Programme for 1918 provides articles of equal interest and importance.

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List of New Books.

Prepared in co-operation with the Library Association.

The method of classification in the following list needs a few words of explanation. The scheme adopted is the Dewey Decimal Bystem, which starts with a series of ten main classes, that are divided into ten subdivisions, and these again into ten subsections, and so on to any extent of minute classification. This system has secured general recognition in English-speaking countries, and is by far the most popular among librarians.

This List does not, as a rule, attempt to proceed beyond the main classes or their most general subdivisions. At the same time, subclasses are indicated, for the benefit of librarians and others familiar with the system, by the class-numbers given at the end of each entry. The first numeral in these represents the main class; the second one of the subdivisions, and so on.

A Committee of Specialists appointed by the Library Association have marked with asterisks those works in the List which they consider most suitable for purchase by Public Library Authorities.

GENERAL WORKS.

BIBLIOGRAPHY, ENCYCLOPÆDIAS, MAGAZINES, &c.

*The 'Athenæum' Subject Index to Periodicals, 1916; issued at the request of the Council of the Library Association: Historical, Political, and Economic Sciences, including the European War, Geography, Anthropology, and Folk-Lore. 'The Athenæum,' Bream's Buildings, E.C.4 [1917]. 12 by 10 in. 119 pp. authors' index, paper, 5/n.

Appended to this useful alphabetized and classified subject index is an index of authors' names, followed by the titles of the headings under which their contributions will be found. From the fact that these authors' names fill 39 long columns the reader will be able to judge of the large number of articles here made accessible for reference.

*Mathews (E. R. Norris), ed. Bristol Bibliography (City and County of Bristol Municipal Public Libraries): a catalogue of the books, pamphlets, collectanea, &c., relating to Bristol contained in the Central Reference Library. Bristol, printed by order of the Libraries Committee, 1916. 10 by 8 in. 414 pp. addenda, 21/n.

This catalogue contains an important section (covering twenty-six pages) devoted to Thomas Chatterton, the entries concerning whom constitute a comprehensive bibliography of the poet. The volume is creditably produced.

100 PHILOSOPHY.

*Gibson (James). Locke's Theory of Knowledge, and its Historical Relations. Cambridge, University Press, 1917. 9 in. 352 pp. index, 10/6 n. 192.2

This study was begun as an introduction to an edition of the 'Essay concerning Human Understanding,' upon which Prof. Gibson has been engaged for some years; but in view of the proportions to which the study has grown, it is published independently. The first part is occupied by an exposition of Locke's doctrine, and the second treats of the historical relations of the philosopher's thought, of the influences which affected it, of Locke's dissent from the views of Descartes, his position with regard to contemporary English thinkers, and Leibniz's criticism of the 'Essay.' In the concluding chapter Kant's and Locke's conceptions are contrasted.

*Mackenzie (J. S.). ELEMENTS OF CONSTRUCTIVE PHILOSOPHY (Library of Philosophy). London, Allen & Unwin; New York, Macmillan [1917]. 9 in. 487 pp. index, 12/6 n. 102

In this conspectus of the fundamental problems of philosophy Emeritus Professor Mackenzie has succeeded in treating a vast subject in such a way as to make the book serviceable to those who are at the beginning of their studies of this department of knowledge, and full of interest to many who are not specializing in philosophy. The work is in three main sections, entitled 'General Problems of Knowledge—from Doubt to Belief,' Special Aspects of the Universe as known—from Nature to Spirit,' and 'The Universe as a Whole—from Chaos to Cosmos.'

Mercer (Right Rev. John Edward). THE PROBLEM OF CREATION: an attempt to define the character and trend of the cosmic process. S.P.C.K., 1917. 8½ in. 339 pp. appendixes, index, 7/6 n.

In Dr. Mercer's attempt to grapple with the problem of Creation the argument is based, for the most part, upon the postulate ex nihilo nihil; and, as a master-key to the working of the cosmic process, the author takes the main principles brought to light by the evolution hypothesis—"principles now accepted not only by the vast majority of scientists and philosophers, but even by representative teachers of the Roman Catholic Church." The pages of the book are not "encumbered" with references, and the author acknowledges indebtedness to many writers. Fundamental concepts, evolution and creation, physical facts, life and mind, and moral and spiritual facts, are the principal headings under which Bishop Mercer deals with his subject.

Salter (William Mackintire). NIETZSCHE THE THINKER: a study. New York, Henry Holt & Co., 1917. $8\frac{1}{2}$ in. 549 pp. epilogue, notes, index, \$3.50 net. 193.9

The author says that his book is not to be regarded as a biography of Nietzsche, except in the spiritual sense. It is evidently the result of wide reading and deep study of his subject; but unfortunately the attempt, not merely to restate Nietzsche's thoughts, "but to rethink them, using more or less my own language," is not helped by some clumsy construction and faulty punctuation.

Sharnol (Thomas). ORIGINALITY: a popular study of the creative mind, Werner Laurie, 1917. 9 in. 320 pp., index, 15/n.

The author's object is, "first, to show the importance of a study of creative thought and to develop an interest in it; next, to offer some suggestions as to the natural history of mind in its most inspired moments; finally, to institute a regime for the individual whereby he may secure the highest mental efficiency." The main sections of the work treat of the following topics: the natural history of genius; the origin of new ideas; biological factors; hindrances to originality, such as defective home training, false education, low standards of merit, and the professional mind; "looking ahead"; and "praxis." Mr. Sharnol is by no means a pessimist in regard to future possibilities for the man of genius.

Vance (John G.). REALITY AND TRUTH: a critical and constructive essay concerning knowledge, certainty, and truth. Longmans, 1917. 8 in. 355 pp. index, 7/6 n. 121

To give to his fellow-countrymen a critical but definite treatment of the foundations of knowledge, truth, and certainty has for many years been the author's desire. In the present work he deals with the realism of plain men, scepticism, dogmatism, rational doubt and its results, the validity of knowledge, the Kantian theory of knowledge, the possibility of science and philosophy, and other topics.

200 RELIGION.

The Catholic Diary for 1918; edited by a Priest (The Angelus Series). Washbourne [1917]. 4½ by 3 in. 400 pp. front., cloth, 1/3 n.; leather, 2/6 n.

This little publication enters with the present issue upon its tenth year. It comprises a calendar for 1918 and 1919, a chronological table of the Roman Pontiffs, particulars relating to the Catholic hierarchy, statistics, and other information, in addition to a diary noting the chief festivals of the Roman Catholic Church.

*Crozier (John Beattie). Last Words on Great Issues: on Religion as it stands To-day, Religious Conversion, Spiritualism, Imperial Politics, Free Trade and Protection, Socialism, &c. Chapman & Hall, 1917. 9 in. 238 pp., 10/6 n.

'God, the Invisible King,' is the text of two papers on Mr. H. G. Wells and religious window-dressing, which are as entertaining in their Socratic colloquiality as they are penetrating in dialectic. The Canadian philosopher finds in the new religion two elements: Comte's religion of humanity and the Salvation Army's principle of personal conversion. Mr. Crozier's quiet humour and irony find their prey again in the essays on the problem of religious conversion and on Sir Oliver Lodge and Spiritualism. But his attitude towards religion is serious and reverent; it is only dangerous emotionalism and experiments with clairvoyance and magic that he satirizes. His own religious views are put impressively in the

essay on practical religion, which he sums up as "self-renunciation, and again self-renunciation." Papers follow on Canadian and Indian politics, Free Trade, and himself as a "literary cutteet". literary outcast"; but we think that the description is far from justified.

Fawkes (Alfred). THE GENIUS OF THE ENGLISH CHURCH (The Modern Churchman's Library). Murray, 1917. 7½ in. 128 pp. index, paper, 1/6 n.; cloth, 2/6 n. 283

Regarding his subject rather from the historical than the theological side, the author contends that "the various attempts to denominationalize the Church of England" run counter to "its distinctive genius, to its establishment, and to its historical position as the National Church."

Hankey (Donald). RELIGION AND COMMON SENSE.

1917. 6½ in. 92 pp., 1/ n. 239.7

Contains the reflections of the author on his re-reading, after an interval of seven years, Vivian's book 'The Churches and Modern Thought.' Such subjects as the miracles, the values of the Old and New Testaments, and comparative mythology are handled in a trenchant manner, and the little book should do much to help those in doubt.

book should do much to help those in doubt.

Macnutt (Frederic Brodie), ed. THE CHURCH IN THE FURNACE:
essays by seventeen temporary Church of England
chaplains on active service in France and Flanders.

Macmillan, 1917. 7½ in. 475 pp., 5/ n. 261
A collection of essays prefaced by a paper by the Right Rev.
Llewellyn H. Gwynne, and dealing with 'The Moral Equivalent
of War,' 'Faith in the Light of War,' 'Fellowship in the
Church,' 'Worship and Services,' 'The Training of the Clergy,'
'The Soldier's Religion,' 'When the Priests come Home,' and
other subjects. other subjects.

*Robinson (Charles Henry). The Conversion of Europe. Longmans, 1917. 9 in. 664 pp. synopsis, maps, bibliog. index, 18/ n. 270.1-3

Canon Robinson states that during the present generation "not a single volume has appeared in England, America, or Germany which gives a detailed account of the work done by the missionaries who first preached the Christian faith in the various countries of Europe." The present work is an attempt to cover this neglected ground; and the author treats successively of the introduction of Christianity into the British Isles, France, Italy, the Balkan Peninsula, Spain, Austria, Switzerland, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Poland, Denmark and Iceland, Norway, Sweden, Russia, and the Mediterranean islands. The penultimate chapter is devoted to attempts to convert the Jews in Europe.

Stanton (Arthur Henry). Father Stanton's Sermon Outlines, From his own Manuscript; ed. by Edward Francis Russell. Longmans, 1917. 7½ in. 256 pp. index of texts,

These sermon outlines have been "taken straight from the manuscript books left by the preacher, who knew well how to reach the hearts of men. There has been no alteration of any kind. The outlines are for the seasons from Advent to Easter, and if this volume finds favour, a second series, completing the Christian year, will be published.

*Streeter (Burnett Hillman), Clutton-Brock (Arthur), Emme t (Cyril William), Hadfield (James Arthur), and the Author of 'Pro Christo et Ecclesia' (Lily Dougall). IMMORTALITY: an essay in discovery, co-ordinating scientific, psychical, and Biblical research. *Macmillan*, 1917. 9 in. 394 pp. introd. indexes, 10/6 n.

In the first two essays in this volume, and the first section of the third-for which Mr. Clutton-Brock, Mr. Hadfield (Surgeon, Royal Navy), and Canon Streeter respectively are responsible—an attempt is made to set out in logical sequence the chief arguments for the belief in personal immortality. The remainder of essay 3, and essays 4-6, treat of the "last things," and of the nature of the after-life. Essays 7 and 8 relate to spiritualism, theosophy, and the doctrine of reincarnation; and the ninth essay serves as an epilogue to the whole.

300 SOCIOLOGY.

Adam (Juliette), née Lamber. THE SCHEMES OF THE KAISER; translated, with introduction, by J. O. P. Bland. Heine-

translated, with introduction, by J. O. F. Bland. 1207-mann [1917]. 6½ in. 216 pp., 5/ n. 327.43 With one exception, the articles which constitute this book appeared in La Nouvelle Revue between April 12, 1890, and July 25, 1899. Keen and bitter hostility to the German Emperor appears everywhere, and the accuracy of the writer's judgments of contemporary foreign affairs has been demonstrated to an astonishing extent by the events of the last four years.

After Victory; by an Amateur Officer. Melrose, 1917. 71 in. 317 pp., 5/n.

The Amateur Officer gives his experiences of life in the trenches and fighting on the Somme. "We have achieved a new army," he says; "we want a new society"; and he goes on to depict the new State, new Church, and new Society which he foresees as an outcome of the new views forced on the men at the front and the women at home.

Barelay (Sir Thomas). International Law and Practice; with appendixes containing Hague Conventions of 1907. Declaration of London, 1909 (with Drafting Committee's Report), and materials concerning branches thereof susceptible of adjustment on the termination of the War (supplemental to 'Problems of International Peace and Diplomacy'). London, Sweet & Maxwell; Boston, Mass., Boston Book Co., 1917. 11 by 9 in. 332 pp. appendixes, index, paper, 15/ n.

Comprises sections on the first and second Hague Conferences, an International Prize Court, the Declaration of London, the work achieved during 1907 and 1908-9, the codification of the law of maritime warfare, and the like. There are seven lengthy appendixes.

*Burdett (Sir Henry). BURDETT'S HOSPITALS AND CHARITIES, 1917: being the Year-Book of Philanthropy, and the Hospital Annual. Scientific Press, 28 and 29 Southampton Street, W.C.2, 1917. 71 in. 1,033 pp. appendix, index,

This is the twenty-eighth year of the indispensable work of reference which lies before us. The War has prevented the volume for 1917 being published earlier, but it is stated that the issue for 1918 is already in hand. The present volume includes figures which show the great changes and extraordinary effects which the War has had upon hospital finances, administration, and work.

*Dominian (Leon). The Frontiers of Language and Nationality in Europe. (For the American Geographical Society of New York) London, Constable; New York, Henry Holt & Co. [1917]. $10\frac{1}{2}$ by $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 393 pp. il. maps, appendixes, index, 15/ n. 320.121

The preparation of this "study in applied geography" grew out of the author's desire to trace the connexion between linguistic areas in Europe and the subdivision of the continent It is his belief that the application of geographical knowledge might provide an acceptable settlement of the Eastern Question. A scientific boundary, remarks the author, "prepares the way for permanent goodwill between peoples." The book is confined to a presentation of facts, because the author feels that the solution of the boundary problems involved could not be reached satisfactorily by individual opinion. Numerous maps and photographic views illustrate the text.

nes (Gerard). Sea Power and Freedom: a historical study. Skeffigton [1917]. 9 in. 336 pp. il. index, Fiennes (Gerard).

The author reviews the history of all the nations, from the Phœnicians onwards, who have possessed sea power; contends that its possession depends upon a national character which is essentially antagonistic to despotic rule; and maintains that all attempts by military tyrants to bring the world into subjection have been defeated by sea power. He follows the history of the British nation in regard to sea power, discusses the naval side of the present war, and considers the bearing upon it of the German submarine campaign.

Figgis (Darrell). THE GAELIC STATE IN THE PAST AND FUTURE; OR, "THE CROWN OF A NATION." Dublin and London, Maunsel, 1917. 7 in. 84 pp. paper, 1/ n.

From the sixth to the eighth century, when it was one of the richest and most civilized countries in Europe, Ireland had a polity which Mr. Figgis puts before statesmen as the model for her reconstruction. There were "a number of stateships throughout the country, each ... a smaller reproduction of the State in which it was comprised, and each...a unit in the organization of that State." "The people were the stateship, and the stateship was the people." Owning the land and having an assembly of freemen, each was at once "a political unit in the State and a social and economic unit in itself." Mr. Figgis elaborates a plan for shaping the future institutions of Ireland to conform with this ancient expression of the national genius.

Hilton (John), Kerr (P. H.), Loveday (Alec), Mess (Harold), and Thorp (Joseph). The Other War: being chapters on some causes of class misunderstanding. Allen & Unwin [1917]. 8½ in. 109 pp. paper, 1/n. 331.1

This is a reasoned plea for moderation and tolerance in the conflict between Labour and Capital. The general burden of the five chapters is that there must be more mutual understanding, and that employers must regard themselves as ministers of a public service in which Capital and Labour are equal partners. Mr. Loveday's chapter clears up a number of common fallacies that stand in the way of reconciliation. The writers are practical idealists, and their message is one of hope.

*Holmes (Edmond). What Is and What Might Be: a study of education in general, and elementary education in particular. Constable [1917]. 7 in. 315 pp. paper, 1/6 n.

The eighth impression of Mr. Holmes's well-known work.

Hutt (C. W.). THE FUTURE OF THE DISABLED SOLDIER. Fisher Unwin, 1917. 7½ in. 209 pp. il. 7 appendixes, index, 6/ n. 371.91

This is a book of considerable interest, dealing as it does with the training of disabled soldiers, both abroad and in the United Kingdom, with their employment in this country, and with the nature of the occupations available for men afflicted with various defects.

The Lie of August 3rd, 1914; by ***. Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. 74 in. 358 pp., 6/n. 327.43

A critical examination of the official events which immediately preceded the beginning of the Great War. Official evidence from all available sources is brought together to show that the War was initiated by Germany, although great pains were taken by her to make it appear that her actions were compulsory measures of self-defence. The diplomatic negotiations, the dates of mobilization in the principal States, the allegations against the French of violations of neutrality, and the actual German violations of neutrality in Luxemburg and France, are dealt with thoroughly.

Low's Handbook to the Charities of London, 1917 (82nd year of publication). Sampson Low, 1917. $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 324 pp. il. limp cloth, 1/6 n. 361.9421

This useful work of reference, alphabetically arranged, and provided with a classified table of contents, is prefaced by an appeal from the editor, who calls attention to the fact that the incomes of all charities have been seriously affected by "the enormous taxation and the heavy demands on public generosity, on account of the Great War in which our country is engaged." The book comprises statements of the "objects, date of formation, office, income, expenditure, invested funds, bankers, treasurers, and secretaries of over 1,200 charitable and other beneficent institutions, revised according to the latest reports."

*McClure (Samuel S.). Obstacles to Peace. Stanley Paul, 1917. 9 in. 422 pp., 7/6 n. 327

A study of the origin and conduct of the War, and the economic conditions and feelings of the belligerents, by an American who shows an intimate knowledge of the Eastern Question, lived a considerable time in Turkey, and was for some time in Germany during the War. The value of Mesopotamia, its great importance as a field for German expansion, and the consequent danger to British interests in the East, are fully explained. There is a clear description of the lines of agreement in 1914 which, if completed, would have made a lasting basis for peace. The reader is offered an impartial view of the different attitudes of the chief Powers in the period of negotiation between the murders at Serajevo and the outbreak of war. The latter part of the book deals with German war law, submarine blockade, and atrocities, German and other.

Maine (Sir Henry James Sumner). Ancient Law (Everyman's Library, 734). Dent, 1917. 7 in. 255 pp. bibliog. index, 1/6 n. 349

This edition of Maine's work, long since ranked as a classic, is welcome. The introduction is by Prof. J. H. Morgan, and includes a note for the guidance of the reader who wishes to study Maine in the light of modern criticism. There is also a useful bibliography of Maine's works.

Murray (Gilbert). The WAY FORWARD: three articles on Liberal policy; with a preface by the Right Hon. Viscount Grey of Fallodon. Allen & Unwin [1917]. 8½ in. 43 pp. paper, 1/n.

The three articles here reprinted, entitled 'The Groundwork,' The Settlement Abroad, and 'The New Order at Home,' originally appeared in *The Daily News*. Viscount Grey in his preface carefully refrains from passing anything like final judgment on our enemies. His indictment of the German Government is justly severe, but he reserves his judgment of its acts and of the German people until we are in a better position to know how far they have willingly acquiesced in them. Free from blame they cannot be, any more than the Allies can be, for wrong acts committed by those who still rule them.

Outhwaite (Robert L.). THE LAND OR REVOLUTION. Allen & Unwin [1917]. 7 in. 114 pp. paper, 1/n. 336.22

Sixteen years ago Mr. Outhwaite was joint-author of a novel, 'The Wisdom of Esau,' exposing the evils of the Gavan Duffy Land Act and the doings of the landgrabbers in Australia. He has since been known as a strong believer in the Single Tax, Turgot's impôt unique. And now, anticipating the danger of a revolution when the demobilized millions are invited to return to the economic conditions they endured before the War, rendered still more oppressive by fiscal burdens and other things, he sets forth the case for communal resumption of property in the land by means of a slowly increasing tax on its capital value, backs up his arguments by statistics, and endeavours to anticipate criticisms. He contends that this one measure, if faithfully carried out, would solve the bulk of our economic difficulties.

Pollard (A. F.). THE COMMONWEALTH AT WAR. Longmans, 1917. 9 in. 262 pp., 6/6 n. 327

About half of these nineteen essays have appeared in The Times Literary Supplement, and others in The Yale Review, The Contemporary Review, or elsewhere. Among the subjects dealt with are the length of wars, the freedom of the seas, the temptation of peace, and the ways of revolution.

Sarolea (Charles). GERMAN PROBLEMS AND PERSONALITIES; with introduction by the literary editor of *The New York Times. Chatto & Windus* [1917]. 6½ in. 271 pp. por., 5/ n. 327.43

In 'The Anglo-German Problem,' published in 1912, Mr. Sarolea foretold the war between Britain and Germany and the German invasion of Belgium: his forecasts of 1906-12 are here reprinted in part, with the addition of some papers contributed to Everyman, dealing with the revolution which the author anticipates in Germany and his view of the peace settlement. It may be remembered that Sir James Gerard, the late American ambassador in Berlin, also sees no hope of a permanent peace except in an internal revolution, of a more or less peaceful nature; but he does not appear to share Mr. Sarolea's optimism with regard to its likelihood in the near future.

*Selfridge (H. Gordon). THE ROMANCE OF COMMERCE. Lane. 1918. 9 in. 442 pp. il. pors. index, 10/6 n. 380.9

The author passes in review the commerce of the ancient civilizations; writes of Venice, the Hanseatic League, guilds, early British commerce, trade and the Tudors, and the growth of trade from the seventeenth century to the twentieth; deals with the later English merchants, including Sir Josiah Child, William Paterson, and Sir Robert Peel; has chapters upon trade and the English aristocracy, Japan, and the Hudson Bay Company; and concludes with a detailed account of a representative great distributing business-house. The last-named section is accompanied by an "organization chart" of a twentieth-century business store.

Simpson (J. H.). An Adventure in Education. Sidgwick & Jackson, 1917. 8 in. 217 pp., 2/6 n. 371.59

The author describes an experiment in the educative effect of self-government upon one of the lower forms of a Public School. The venture was, admittedly, limited and incomplete, and all the results which had been hoped for from putting into practice the principles of self-government were not achieved. Nevertheless the results were sufficiently encouraging to impel the author to ask those who have the faith and the opportunity to try by experiment the effect of true self-government upon boys and girls of the adolescent age.

Struthers (Lina Rogers). The School Nurse: a survey of the duties and responsibilities of the nurse in the maintenance of health and physical perfection, and the prevention of disease, among school children. New York and London, Putnam, 1917. 7½ in. 310 pp. il. charts, bibliog., 7/6 n.

The history, organization, and administration of school nursing services; school clinics; outdoor classes; children's diseases, and the qualifications of the school nurse, are the main subjects to which this useful volume is devoted. The illustrations include numerous facsimiles of forms for reports and the like.

Thayer (W. R.), ed. "OUT OF THEIR OWN MOUTHS": utterances of German rulers, statesmen, publicists, soldiers, &c.; with introduction by W. R. Thayer. New York, Appleton, 1917. 7 in. 283 pp., \$1 n. 327.43

This book contains one or two quotations from Frederick I., Heine, and Goethe, but the bulk are quite modern. The matter relating to Bismarck includes an account of the editing of the Ems dispatch. Utterances regarding America form a separate chapter. There is also a chapter of Social Democratic protests and warnings. The work has been done with care and fairness, and the book is of interest, and should be useful for reference.

University of London. University College: Abridged Calendar, Session 1917-1918. Taylor & Francis, 1917. 8½ in. 422 pp., 2/6 n. 378.421

Comprises the prospectuses of the faculties, information regarding scholarships and the like, particulars of postgraduate courses, regulations for examinations, lists of original papers, prizes, and civil honours and appointments, with much other useful matter.

The Year-Book of the Universities of the Empire, 1916 and 1917.

(For the Universities Bureau of the British Empire)

Jenkins [1917]. S¹/₂ in. 428 pp. appendixes, indexes,

7/6 n. 378.42

For reasons of economy, it was decided not to issue this work in 1916, but it is considered that the appearance of the chronicle of the current history of the fifty-six Universities of the British Empire should not be intermitted for two years in succession, although a complete record of their activities during the War cannot at present be published.

600 USEFUL ARTS.

*Crookes (Sir William). THE WHEAT PROBLEM: based on remarks made in the Presidential Address to the British Association at Bristol in 1898; revised, with an answer to various critics, by Sir William Crookes; third edition; with preface, and additional chapter bringing the statistical information up to date; and a chapter on Future Wheat Supplies by Sir R. Henry Rew; with an introduction by Lord Rhondda. Longmans, 1917. 8 in. 116 pp. introd., 3/6 n. 633.1

In 1898 Sir William Crookes, in his Presidential Address to the British Association, warned the world that a scarcity of wheat was within measurable distance, showed the urgency of the problem, and adumbrated the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen upon a commercial basis. Time has shown that Sir William's warning, though met by much adverse criticism at the time, was not unneeded; and since the delivery of the address the fixation of atmospheric nitrogen has been effected on a commercially successful scale by a number of different processes. To this third edition the present Food Controller contributes an introduction, and the book should be read by all interested in agriculture and kindred subjects.

*King (D. Macdougall). THE BATTLE WITH TUBERCULOSIS, AND HOW TO WIN IT: a book for the patient and his friends. Philadelphia and London, Lippincott [1917]. 7½ in. 258 pp. introduction, il. appendix, index, 6/n. 616.995

The author is convinced that the greater number of deaths from tuberculosis occur, "not because the disease is terribly virulent, for in most cases it is not," but because the majority of patients do not understand the significance of the reasons underlying the treatment that will bring success. Accordingly, he gives in simple language an account of the nature, symptoms, treatment, and measures for the prevention of the disease. The treatment adopted in sanatoria is described at some length.

Leslie (R. Murray). The Health of a Woman. *Methuen* [1917]. 7 in. 124 pp. index, 1/3 n. 613

Dr. Leslie is well qualified to write on this subject, having had much experience in hospitals and private practice, besides being Chairman of the Women's Imperial Health Association, and honorary physician for many years to hostels for girl workers. In the book before us he treats of various topics of importance to women and girls, and gives practical advice which should be specially serviceable at the present time.

Pitman's Shorthand and Typewriting Year-Book and Diary for 1918; edited by Harold Downs. Pitman & Sons [1917]. 6½ by 3½ in. 248 pp., 1/n. 653.6

This booklet, for the "Second Year after Bissextile, or Leap Year, and the 8th and 9th of King George V.," is the twenty-seventh issue of a serviceable companion for the pocket, embodying information which will be acceptable, not only to phonographers and typists, but also to many other persons. The letterpress is followed by a diary, with spaces for seven days on a page.

Powell-Owen (W.). Pig-keeping on Money-making Lines. Newnes, 1917. 9 in. 160 pp. il., 2/6 n. 636.4

The author discusses the opportunities afforded by pigkeeping, making a start, successful pig-breeding, pig-clubs and co-operation, the outdoor system of pig-keeping, and the like.

700 FINE ARTS.

Ashbee (C. R.). Where the Great City Stands: a study in the new Civies. Essex House Press, 37 Cheyne Walk, S.W., and Batsford, 1917. 11½ by 9½ in. 177 pp. il., 21/n.

The author's object is to appeal to the practical idealist, "to fix public attention upon the asthetic movements of our time, to find out what they mean and how they are interwoven or lead one into the other. It is an attempt to show what lies behind the City Life, and the obverse of this, the new life of the country, agricultural or suburban." The book is not technical, and is not intended for experts. The origins of the art influences of our time; the Pre-Raphaelite, Impressionist, Post-Impressionist, and Futurist movements; the Garden City idea, co-ordination in the city as against competition, and the reaction of town and country, are a few of the numerous subjects dealt with in the book, which comprises 121 excellent illustrations.

*Howard (F. E.) and Crossley (F. H.). English Church Woodwork: a study in craftsmanship during the mediæval period, A.D. 1250-1550. Batsford [1917]. 10½ in. 370 pp. 380 photographs, 150 il. from drawings, indexes, 30/n.

Dr. Cox published in 1916 his 'Bench-Ends in English Churches,' dealing with one variety of woodwork in mediæval churches, dealing with one variety of woodwork in mediavar churches; now appears this magnificent treatise on the entire subject. The authors, after introductory sections on chrono-logical development, local types, and colour decoration, arrange their material under six main heads: structural woodwork; fittings of the sanctuary; quire fittings; screens, roods, and lofts; fittings of the nave; and tombs and movable fittings. The great feature of the book is the wealth of superb photographic illustrations, which are a surprise even to the experienced church-rambler, and include some four hundred examples from all parts of England and many parts of Wales. The majority are not from the cathedrals and large monastic foundations, but from parish churches. One may miss now and then one's favourite example of a porch, a rood-screen, or a hammerbeam roof; but there are certainly no gaps, the authors rightly preferring to put a less-known illustration, when it is of equal interest and beauty, instead of one that is very familiar. They have also given some 35 pages of measured drawings, which in conjunction with the lucid account in the text brings out the methods and artistic aims of the architect and craftsman. Besides the alphabetical list of illustrations, there is a list by counties, useful to the tourist and student. The breadth of the authors' survey enables them to show the importance of local peculiarities of construction and style. They have produced a worthy memorial to the late Herbert Batsford, to whom the work is dedicated.

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800 LITERATURE.

Hazlitt (William). Selected Essays; edited by George Sampson. Cambridge, University Press, 1917. 8 in. 289 pp. introd. text, notes, 3/6 n. 824.9

The editor has had in view the possible needs of students in Training Colleges, candidates for the Board of Education's Certificate Examination, pupils in the highest forms of schools, and some general readers. The selection comprises 'My First Acquaintance with Poets,' 'On the Conversation of Authors,' 'On reading Old Books,' 'On Actors and Acting,' 'On the Pleasure of Painting,' and other well-known essays. The numerous notes fill one hundred pages, and the introduction is a useful sketch of Hazlitt's life and writings.

Ireland (Lockhart Landels). PTE. JOHN MACLEAN, OF THE BLACK WATCH; and other sketches. Kirkcaldy, 'The Fifeshire Advertiser,' 1917. 7½ in. 125 pp. por. il., 240

This volume opens with a memoir of the author, who was killed in action on July 25, 1916. His stories of Private Maclean are brief word-pictures of the effects of the War in humble Fife homes. These and some of the other sketches are of decided literary merit. A few pieces of verse are included.

Klickmann (Flora). Between the Larch-Woods and the Weir. R.T.S., 1917. 8 in. 310 pp., 6/ 824.9

A series of pleasant papers dealing with special aspects of life in the country among the hills. The author is the editor of *The Girl's Own Paper and Woman's Magazine*, and wields a fluent pen to good purpose.

Lynd (Robert). If the Germans conquered England; and other essays. Dublin and London, Maunsel, 1917. 7½ in. 172 pp., 3/6 n. 824.9

Nearly all these twenty-five essays, including the first, which gives the name to the book, have appeared in *The New Statesman*; but the sketch of T. M. Kettle was published in *The Daily News*, and that of Sheehy-Skeffington in *The Ploughshare*. 'On Doing Nothing,' Ruthlessness,' 'The Business Man,' 'White Citizens,' and 'On taking a Walk in London' are among the other papers.

Parker (Louis N.). THE ARISTOCRAT: a play. Lane, 1917. $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 104 pp. paper, 1/ n. 822.9 The text of the well-known play.

*Sichel (Edith). NEW AND OLD; with an introduction by A. C. Bradley. Constable, 1917. 9 in. 372 pp. pors. introd., 10/6 n. 824.9

A perusal of this book leaves the reader with a sense of wonder how Miss Sichel found time to do her valuable practical work on behalf of the poor, to carry out official duties in association with education, and to become known as a delightful "hostess, guest, or companion," while maintaining a continuous literary activity that enabled her to produce more than half a dozen books relating to the French Renaissance and other subjects, to contribute about a hundred reviews to The Times Literary Supplement (of which perhaps a fifth are reprinted in the volume before us), and to write numerous articles for The Pilot and other publications, dealing with a diversity of topics. Some of the last-named articles are also reproduced in the present book. Prof. Bradley's introduction is not a memoir, but briefly summarizes Miss Sichel's more important work.

Wyatt (A. J.) and Low (W. H.). INTERMEDIATE TEXTBOOK OF ENGLISH LITERATURE: part 2; revised and partly rewritten by C. M. Drennan. Clive, 1917. 7 in. pp. 367-774, chronological table, &c. (16 pp.), index, 4/6 820.9 This continues the history from the Elizabethan age to

1832, on the same lines as the first part, which we noticed in our List of New Books for November last.

POETRY

Cradock (Henry Cowper). THE Song of THE BURDEN OF MARY. Robert Scott, 1917. 61 in. 12 pp. front., 1/n.

Verses expressing the love and pride of Mary at the time of the Nativity.

*Drinkwater (John). Poems, 1908-1914. Sidgwick & Jackson, 1917. 7½ in. 120 pp. por. index, 5/n. 821.9

Mr. Drinkwater has included in this volume all that he is "anxious to preserve" from the four collections published during 1908-14, and also the epilogue to his 'Cromwell.' The only piece that he has largely rewritten is 'June Dance.'

*Hardy (Thomas). Moments of Vision; and Miscellaneous Verses. Macmillan, 1917. 8 in. 267 pp., 6/n. 821.9

The greater number of these pieces—averaging about a page in length—consist of sad, bitter, or tragic things—life's,

page in length—consist of sad, bitter, or tragic things—life's, or death's, little ironies. They are mostly prosaic both in thought and style; but occasional touches of natural beauty, keenly observed, relieve the drabness, and remind one of the Wessex novels. Apparently, they are all of recent date. The last score are "Poems of War and Patriotism"; and the final poem, 'Afterwards,' is a pathetic foreshadowing of the time

When the Present has latched its postern behind my tremulous stay.

Hewlett (Maurice Henry). THE LOVING HISTORY OF PERIDORE AND PARAVAIL. Collins [1917]. 8 in. 119 pp., 5/ n. 821.9

Mr. Hewlett told the story of Vigilas first in prose in the 'New Canterbury Tales,' and has now made a metrical romance, in the pseudo-medieval style, by writing it anew in stanzas of eight octosyllabic lines. The tale is a curious blend of the maiden born without a soul and the St. Anthony motive; and Mr. Hewlett's chief success is in his grim atmosphere of witchery and devildom combating alike the natural instincts of the lovers and the unnatural asceticism of the saint. From this it is obvious how essentially it is a modern tale.

Martin (G. Currie). POETS OF THE DEMOCRACY. Headley Bros., 1917. 7½ in. 138 pp. il. pors., 1/6 n. 821.08
Among the poets of whom the author treats in this series of papers are Wordsworth, Burns, Whitman, Milton, Crabbe, Meredith, and Sir Rabindranath Tagore.

*Oxford Poetry, 1914-1916; ed. by G. D. H. C. and W. S. V. Oxford, Blackwell, 1917. 8 in. 198 pp. boards, 3/6 n.

It is pleasant to have the three slim volumes of 'Oxford Poetry' for 1914, 1915, and 1916 between one pair of covers, uniform with the volume for 1910-13.

Oxford Poetry, 1917; ed. by W. R. C., T. W. E., and D. L. S. Oxford, Blackwell, 1917. 8 in. 64 pp. paper, 1/n. 821.9
Nearly a score of new names appear in this year's collection, two of these (D. N. Dalglish of St. Hilda's and Flora Forster of Somerville) being responsible for two of the finest pieces, 'Otmoor' and 'Ducklington.' The former is a choice example of the descriptive reverie or meditative description, which is a prevailing note in the book; the latter a rustic song of youth and spring that seems to go to music of itself. Mr. A. L. Huxley gives a rendering of Mallarmé's 'Après-midi d'un Faune' in heroic verse. The author of 'Ardours and Endurances,' Mr. Robert Nichols, contributes 'The Men of Honour.'

*Shelley (Percy Bysshe), THE LYBICAL POEMS AND TRANS-LATIONS; edited and newly arranged in chronological order, with a preface, by C. H. Herford. Chatto & Windus, 1918. 8½ in. 507 pp. boards, 12/6 n. 821.77

This fine edition from the Florence Press is a worthy companion to Sir Sidney Colvin's edition of Keats from the same press in 1915. The publishers intimate that if its reception is encouraging they will complete the issue of Shelley's poems from the Florence Press. Prof. Heriord has reproduced, "with certain reservations," the text and arrangement of the 'Oxford Shelley,' edited by Mr. Hutchinson, and issued by the Clarendon Press in 1904, the best critical edition. The distinction between the "Principal" and the "Miscellaneous" poems was made by Mrs. Shelley in the first collected edition, and has been retained with little change by later editors. Prof. Herford makes a stricter classification; and, by putting 'The Euganean Hills,' Epipsychidion,' Adonais, and some ten other pieces, among the lyrical poems, enables the whole compass of Shelley's lyrical output in any one year to be more clearly appreciated. It is intended to "Narrative and Dramatic" poems, should the contemplated edition of these prove feasible, as we sincerely hope that it will.

Wiles (J. W.), tr. Serbian Songs and Poems: chords of the Yugoslav harp; translated by J. W. Wiles. Allen & Unwin [1917]. 7½ in. 80 pp. introduction, appendix, paper, 2/n. 891.821

Simplicity, deep feeling, imagination, and occasionally humour, are features of these folk-songs, religious poems, and lamentations of a brave and high-spirited race, for whom we all wish a happier future. In the appendix are two pieces by Yovan Yovanovitch Zmaj: modern verses, but expressive of two aspects of Yugoslav history—struggle and song.

FICTION.

Benson (Edward Frederick). An AUTUMN Sowing. Collins, 1917. 8 in. 339 pp., 6/ n.

Mr. Benson's new novel is an average example of his character-drawing and his dramatizing of the inner life of sound, average people. An ill-mated successful business man falls in love with his well-bred and well-educated secretary; and the end is renunciation and the uplifting of his ideals. Some amusement is to be had from the minor characters

Byrd (John Walter). The Born Fool. Chatto & Windus, 1917. 7½ in. 320 pp., 6/ n.

This is a detailed study of character-primarily that of a boy from childhood to manhood, but the mentality of his stern father is also vividly depicted, and the lovableness of the mother is well contrasted with it.

Carter (John L.). Dust. Duckworth, 1917. 71 in. 336 pp., 6/n.

'Dust' tells the story of a young clergyman who makes a compact with a girl to live a life of married celibacy. The tale is plausible, but the devices to which the couple resort to preserve secrecy are, we think, incompatible, even in this inconsistent age, with their efforts to live in what they conceive to be an ideal state. Some of the secondary characters are better limned than the principal ones.

Cleaver (Hylton). The Tempting Thought. Mills & Boon, 1917. $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 314 pp., 6/

Introduces the reader to some charmingly simple people and at least one disagreeable person. The characters are paired off in a way which will not be satisfactory to the average novel-reader, but the accounts of an Eastern voyage and of some national sporting events make up a readable tale.

Cooke (Marjorie Benton). CINDERELLA JANE. Jarrolds [1917]. 7½ in. 304 pp., 6/

Cinderella Jane is a personality, and readers will do well to The scene is laid in New York, but make her acquaintance. the social questions which Jane helps to solve are felt in England as much as in America. They are deep questions, but the author, while giving prominence to the woman's view of them, handles them so brightly that their seriousness is not felt to be in the least oppressive.

Crook (Margaret Brackenbury). THE TRACK OF THE STORM: tales of the Marne, the Meuse, and the Aube. Headley Bros., 1917. 7 in. 111 pp. paper, 1/6 n.

Fifteen short stories, six of which originally appeared in The Manchester Guardian. They are readable sketches of the life of the inhabitants of districts ravaged by the War.

Dale (Lucy) and Faulding (G. M.). MERELY PLAYERS. Fisher Unwin [1917]. 7½ in. 384 pp., 6/n.

Madeleine Leonard, an amateur playwright, marries a man for whom she does not greatly care in order to escape the persistent attentions of a major who is neglecting his wife. But Madeleine is too much wrapped up in the production of her pieces on the stage to devote much thought to her husband, who consequently drifts back to his old friend Judith Wade for consolation and sympathy.

Doubly Tied: a farce; by Flâneuse. Greening (Stanley Paul)

[1917]. 7½ in. 226 pp., 6/
In 'A Word to You!' at the beginning of the book, the author explains that this vivacious and rather amusing story of an ex-barmaid who marries a wealthy cripple for the sake of his money is not "meant for anything except a farce," and that there is no desire that "readers shall regard it in any light different from that in which they would regard a roughand-tumble skit on a London stage.

Du Maurier (George). TRILBY (Constable's Shilling Series). Constable [1917]. 6½ in. 320 pp. il., 1/ n. Cheap edition.

Ferguson (John). STEALTHY TERROR. Lane, 1917. 71 in. 301 pp., 6/

The hero, when in Berlin shortly before the War, is entrusted with a packet containing a pictographic letter, the significance of which he does not realize until various attempts have been made upon his life in the endeavour to regain possession of it. The story is full of exciting incidents connected with German plans for the invasion of England.

*Goldsmith (Oliver). THE VICAR OF WAKEFIELD; with illustrations by Edmund J. Sullivan. Constable [1917]. 91 in. 354 pp. 100 il. boards, 7/6 823.64

This is a reprint of Mr. Sullivan's illustrated edition, which appeared at 12s. 6d. net in 1914.

Goodchild (George). UMPTEEN YARNS : collected from Somewhere in France. Jarrolds [1917]. 61 in. 150 pp. boards,

Not a few amusing anecdotes are included in this collection, which comprises stories that are familiar as well as many bearing the stamp of novelty. The compiler remarks that the British soldier's "innate optimism, mixed with his external discomfort, gives place to situations which at times are screamingly funny," and it is matter for congratulation that humorous incidents occur as a foil to the grim side of life on the fighting

Gould (Nat). A GAMBLE FOR LOVE. Long [1917]. 81 in. 124 pp. paper, 7d. n. New edition.

Hamilton (Helen). THE ICONOCLAST. Daniel [1917]. 71 in.

135 pp. paper, 1/3 n.
Describes how a newspaper thus entitled induces a schoolmistress and an invertebrate clerk to discuss questions of sex, and plan a romantic holiday; also their relief when their plans come to naught.

*Jacks (Lawrence Pearsall). The Country Air (Writings of L. P. Jacks, vol. 4). Williams & Norgate, 1917. 8 in. 233 pp., 2/6 n.

Four of these are character-sketches of or dialogues with rustics, of more than one of whom it might be quoted from the author, "A wise stupidity was the keynote of Mr. Jeremy's The humour never fails, even in the gruesome gravedigger story; and the philosopher's criticism of life vitalizes every page. 'Mary' touches far-sightedly on feminine emancipation. 'That Sort of Thing' is a caustic indictment of the Public School system and its neglect of natural aptitude.

*Jacks (Lawrence Pearsall). ALL MEN ARE GHOSTS (Writings of L. P. Jacks, vol. 5). Williams & Norgate, 1917. 8 in. 254 pp., 2/6 n.

This collection appeared originally in 1913. The title-story develops the theme, "Illusion is an integral part of Reality"; and the kindred fantasia, 'Panhandle and the Ghosts,' inverts the conventional ghost-story by representing the "living" if we may beg the question and employ such a term—as haunting the disembodied. Prof. Jacks helps us to realize what might have been the result to mankind had metaphysicians been able to converse familiarly with ordinary men, or had men of letters received a philosophic training. He conveys, not doctrine, but a new attitude of mind, and by placing the reader at a new angle of vision almost gives the impression of having restored a sixth sense.

* Jacks (Lawrence Pearsall). Among the Idol-Makers (Writings of L. P. Jacks, vol. 6). Williams & Norgate, 1917. 8 in. 237 pp., 2/6 n.

These stories first appeared in 1911. The longest is 'The Tragedy of Professor Denison, and the most poignant 'Helen Ramsden.' 'Made out of Nothing' is the satire on modern antique-making which confers its title on the volume.

*Kaye-Smith (Sheila). THE CHALLENGE TO SIRIUS. Nisbet

[1917]. 8 in. 436 pp., 6/n.

The Isle of Oxney on the Kent and Sussex borders provides the natural setting to this long novel of characters tried by life and love. The young farmer's son leaves his boyhood's sweetheart to attempt authorship and journalism, fights with the Confederates in the American Civil War, and has advent tures in Yucatan, and various disillusioning experiences with other women, before he comes home, middle-aged and sobered, to marry the widowed Maggie.

Le Queux (William Tufnell). THE BOMB-MAKERS : being some curious records concerning the craft and cunning of Theodore Drost, an enemy alien in London, together with certain revelations regarding his daughter Ella. Jarrolds

[1917]. 7½ in. 160 pp., 2/6 n.
Six sensational "episodes," in all of which the leading character is a German man of science who poses as a Dutch ex-missionary from Sumatra. He has a laboratory, in which he prepares explosives for the purpose of wrecking English buildings, bridges, or munition trains, and concocts various other plots with the aid of accomplices, one of whom is a German professor with an expert knowledge of deadly bacilli.

Macmahon (Ella). An Honourable Estate. Mills & Boon

[1917]. 7½ in. 316 pp., 6/

This is a capital story of an apparently commonplace young Irish clergyman who marries a duke's granddaughter. lady's sentiment for her husband is, to begin with, esteem, rather than affection; but when her life is in imminent danger from an attack of diphtheria, her husband saves her by his heroism. This leads to a pleasant ending of a wholesome

Margerison (John S.). Periscope and Propeller: More Tales of the Navy Trade. Pearson, 1917. 7 in.

118 pp., 1/3 n. Readers of Mr. Margerison's earlier volume of tales of the Navy trade, 'Turret and Torpedo,' will need no recommenda-tion to induce them to read the further submarine exploits of Commander James Carew and his right-hand man Michael Mulvaney as recorded in 'Periscope and Propeller' 'Patience,' the first of the new series, seems like an intelligent anticipation of the Italian lieutenant's recent feat in sinking the Austrian cruiser Wien in Trieste harbour.

*Mayne (Ethel Colburn), COME IN. Chapman & Hall, 1917.

8 in. 222 pp. 6/n.
The faculty exercised in these short stories is a peculiar insight into the almost imperceptible jars and incongruities and the subconscious antipathies of temperament. In Separate Room,' for instance, a case of the Freudian wish is worked out to a painful climax. 'Four Ballrooms' gives a series of lighter and sometimes comic examples of natures meeting and leaving a more or less enduring impress on each other illustrating the same clairvoyance. 'Lovells Meeting' is a sketch of a fickle lover's mind awakened from its egotism by death.

Megrue (Roi Cooper) and Martyn (Wyndham). UNDER COVER.

Jarrolds [1917]. 7½ in. 252 pp., 5/ n.

This novel, by Mr. Wyndham Martyn, is described on the title-page as "Founded on the popular play by Roi Cooper Megrue, author of 'Under Fire,' &c."

Morgan-de-Groot (J. B.). WYNNINGFORD. Stanley Paul [1917].

8 in. 329 pp., 6/ The gentleman who bears the name of Wynningford, first as a commoner, and then as a peer, is suspected of having killed his wife, and buries himself in the woods, where he is loved by a gardener's daughter, and at long last by the girl whom he loves; but social ostracism drives him to suicide at the very moment when his good name is about to be cleared. is a compound of tragi-comedy and melodrama by a practised hand, expounding austere views of life and conduct.

Murray (Eunice G.). THE HIDDEN TRAGEDY. Daniel [1917].

7½ in. 267 pp. paper, 2/n.

This book opens with a tragedy, but relates largely to the heroine's sympathy with, and work for, the Women's Suffrage movement. She is a member of one of the well-known militant organizations, and suffers imprisonment for the cause. There is a definite love-interest in the story, which is pleasantly

*Newte (Horace W. C.). THE HOUSE THAT FELL, AND THE DECLINE AND FALL OF A SUBURB. Mills & Boon

[1917]. 8 in. 308 pp., 6/

Some fifty denizens of villadom-for the most part snobs, fools, gossips, flirts, harridans, or otherwise objectionable, or at any rate commonplace, people, but all, equally with the more engaging characters, unmistakably buman and worth appreciation - are here drawn with quiet but effective The failure of the invertebrate hero, both in marriage and love, makes a pedestrian story; but sympathy, amusement, or satirical laughter is evoked by almost every page, for the author sees life as it is.

Perrin (Alice). TALES THAT ARE TOLD. Skeffington, 1917.

71 in. 251 pp., 6/

A group of ten tales, the best of which is the longest, 'The Gift of God,' with the Indian atmosphere which the author knows so well how to reproduce. The others are slighter, and one or two lack the distinction which we expect from this writer.

Prys-Williams (Marion). BLODWEN. Simpkin & Marshall

[1917]. $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 256 pp., 3/6 n

This is an amateurish novel of an old-established type, the sugary-sentimental romance of a sprightly young lady, regarded by her relatives as an awful example of the new woman, who attires herself in breeches and gatters, goes tour-ing in Wales on a motor-cycle, and falls into the arms of her affinity, a young Welsh squire.

Quiller-Couch (Sir Arthur). MORTALLONE; AND AUNT TRINI-DAD: tales of the Spanish Main, Arrowsmith, 1917. 71 in. 327 pp., 6/

Two tales of adventure, 'Mortallone' being the story of a treasure-hunt in the Spanish Main, and 'Aunt Trinidad' the history of a Bristol woman who married a buccaneer and led a roving life. The first yarn is decidedly the better.

Richardson (Henry Handel). The Fortunes of Richard Mahony (Australia Felix, 1). Heinemann [1917]. 7½ in.

410 pp., 6/n.

This is a study of a man of reserved, though lovable disposition. We first meet him as a storekeeper in Ballarat during the gold craze. Later he makes a success as a doctor; and finally we leave him on his way to England, still in search of an environment suited to his character. His wife and other people provide contrast to the somewhat sombre hero.

Russell (Lindsay). LAND O' THE DAWNING. Cassell [1917]. 7½ in. 311 pp., 6/ n.

The story opens with the reclamation of a rich man's mistress by a journalist. The heroine ultimately takes part in the Sinn Fein rebellion, and the hero starts a newspaper in Northern Victoria.

Souvestre (Pierre) and Allain (Marcel). A Nest of Spies: being the continued pursuit of Fantômas the elusive; translated from the French by B. J. (The Fantômas Detective Novels). Stanley Paul [1917]. 7½ in. 334 pp., 6/

A fresh series of mysterious crimes leads Juve, the French counterpart of Sherlock Holmes, to suspect in them the work of Fantômas, the man of many disguises. The detective eventually runs him to earth, but Fantômas shows that he is not at the end of his resources, so readers will have yet another opportunity of tracing his remarkable career.

Spurr (Jack). Conscript "Tich." Chambers, 1917. 71 in. 223 pp. foreword, 2/6 n.

A vivacious story of a commonplace little man who, unwillingly enough, becomes a soldier, and has his full share of fighting "somewhere" at the front. He acquits himself, however, so well as to earn a D.C.M.

Stead (F. Herbert). No More War! "Truth embodied in a Tale." Simpkin & Marshall, 1917. 81 in. 432 pp. Simpkin 1 & Marshall, 1917. 81 in. 432 pp. front., 6/n.

A notable story, full of excitement, in which Hohenzollernism and Prussian militarism are depicted as destroyed, and British, French, and American troops pass into Germany over the Belgian frontier. The German people become self-governing; the Kaiser is pronounced to be insane; and an agitation for the abolition of war, led by Great Britain, culminates in a meeting of delegates from all the nations at the Hague, where it is declared that the Powers in their collective capacity shall be known as "The United States of the World," and that there shall be simultaneous and obligatory disarmament of all the Powers.

Tilsley (J. Frederick). CHEERIO! SOME SOLDIER YARNS. Chambers, 1917. 7 in. 235 pp., 2/6 n.

A series of nineteen war-sketches, some of which have appeared in London Opinion, Pearson's Weekly, and elsewhere.

Veer (W. de). REVOKE. Lane, 1917. 71 in. 343 pp., 6

A clever study of life and character in the town of Cheribon, on the north coast of Java. The hero, who is the European President of the Landraad, or Native Court, becomes acquainted with a woman on whom, he feels, his whole future happiness depends; but misunderstandings arise, and the story ends in a somewhat unsatisfactory manner.

Wentworth-James (Gertie de S.). The Curtain (John Long's Famous 1/3 net [paper] Series). Long [1917]. 7 in. 254 pp. paper, 1/3 n. Popular edition.

Weston (George). OH, MARY, BE CAREFUL. Philadelphia and London, Lippincott, 1917. 71 in. 178 pp. il., 4/6 n. 813.5 An American tale of how a girl came into a large fortune, but evaded the condition that she must remain unmarried.

Wren (Percival Christopher). THE Young Stagers. mans, 1917. 71 in. 195 pp., 4/6 n.

This book, which is dedicated to Mr. Guyton Butler, is described as "Being further faites and gestes of the Junior Curiton Club of Karabad, India, whereof some were heretofore set forth in the book yelept 'Dew and Mildew.'" Yardley (Maud H.), Soulmates. Greening (Stanley Paul) [1917]. 7½ in. 267 pp., 6/

A readable but somewhat sad story of a deep attachment between a lovable man, whose wife is in an asylum, and the heroine, his "soulmate," who, to conceal her trouble, contracts an unfortunate marriage with another man. He is killed as the result of an accident, but the heroine is suspected of having murdered him. She again encounters her lover, and eventually dies when her child is born.

910 GEOGRAPHY, TOPOGRAPHY, ANTIQUITIES, &c.

Brassey (Sir Thomas, 1st Earl). THE SUNBEAM, R.Y.S.:
voyages and experiences in many waters; naval reserves
and other matters. Murray, 1917. 9 in. 463 pp. il.
pors. appendixes, index, 21/n. 910.4
Without trenching upon the late Lady Brassey's famous

Without trenching upon the late Lady Brassey's famous book, the author has produced a history of the Sunbeam covering a period of over forty years, and carrying the record down to March 17, 1916, when the yacht was presented by its owner to the Government and the people of India for service as a hospital ship.

De Latocnaye (——). A FRENCHMAN'S WALK THROUGH IRELAND, 1796-7 (PROMENADE D'UN FRANÇAIS DANS L'IRLANDE); translated from the French of De Latocnaye by John Stevenson. Beljast, McCaw, Stevenson & Orr; Dublin, Hodges & Figgis [1917]. 7\frac{1}{2} in. 301 pp., 5/n. 914.15

The author was a Breton, an officer and a Royalist, who sought shelter in England from the Revolutionists, and arrived in London on Dec. 29, 1792. An observant man, he travelled through England, Scotland, and Ireland, and wrote his impressions of the people and the countries. He brings out the immense disparity between the condition of the rich and the poor, especially in Dublin, and the misery and squalor that were rampant in the chief cities of Ireland. The book possesses peculiar interest at the present time.

Greenwood (Alice D.). VOYAGES AND DISCOVERIES: tales of Queen Elizabeth's adventurers, retold from Hakluyt. S.P.C.K., 1917. 10 by 7½ in. 116 pp. il., 4/n. 910.9 'Sir Walter Raleigh's Settlers in Virginia (1584-1589),' 'Martin Frobisher and the North-West Passage (1576),' 'Drake's Voyage round the World (1563),' and 'The Escape of John Fox from the Turks (1563),' are among the headings in this book, in which, simply and succinctly, the editor recounts the stories of famous explorers.

Harben (Henry A.). A DICTIONARY OF LONDON: being notes, topographical and historical, relating to the streets and principal buildings in the City of London; with six plans. Jenkins, 1918. 10½ in. 669 pp. plans, bibliog., 42/n.

This book had its inception more than thirty years ago, and the author's intention was that it should take the form of a modern edition of Stow's 'Survey,' with copious notes and references to authorities. Considerable progress had been made when Mr. Kingsford's edition of Stow appeared, with the result that Mr. Harben changed his plan. The author died in 1910, and his scheme was left unfinished. This substantial volume comprises the area of the City of London within and without the walls to the north of the Thames, the portion upon which the author was engaged at the time of his death. The inclusion of Westminster and Southwark would have postponed the publication for a considerable time, so it was decided to publish the first completed portion, leaving these two areas to be "dealt with separately at some future time, if it should be found possible to do so." The volume, which represents an enormous amount of labour, is provided with six clear plans. The author's aim has been to deal systematically, from the historical and topographical point of view, with the streets and important buildings of London; to determine, from original records and with the help of maps and plans, their location, formation, and growth; to ascertain the origin and derivation of the names, and to supply elucidatory information. The matter is alphabetically arranged; and the revision has been undertaken by Mr. I. I. Greaves.

Howe (Sonia E.). REAL RUSSIANS. Sampson Low, 1917. $7\frac{1}{2}$ in. 255 pp. introduction, il., 6/ n. 914.7

This account of a woman's journey to Russia to plead for a political amnesty throws interesting side-lights on the life and ways of both the peasantry and the nobility, and brings out strikingly the lack of military organization. The author'

vivid descriptions of man and nature indicate that she has had considerable experience of the country.

*Hutton (Edward). Highways and Byways in Wiltshire; with illustrations by Nellie Erichsen (Highways and Byways Series). Macmillan, 1917. 8 in. 480 pp. il. map, index, 6/n. 914.231

The pen-drawings by Miss Erichsen constitute the special feature of this new volume of the "Highways and Byways Mr. Hutton is interested first and foremost in seclesiology and ecclesiastical history, and secondly in the history of the old families and the great houses and picturesque homesteads, villages, and country towns of Wilts. Treating of the ancient roads, he does not mention the prehistoric Harrow Way crossing the county in the south, and traceable for many miles; and he quotes Mr. Haverfield's sceptical reference to a Roman road from Old Sarum to the Mendips. The present reviewer knows many miles of that road also, parts of which are still in use, and much of the rest is traceable. parts of which are stall in use, and inhort of the rest is the Arthurian Is it not rather an exaggeration to say that the Arthurian legend is to us what the 'Hiad' was to the Greeks and the 'Æneid' to the Romans? Mr. Hutton says we are Neolithic, not Anglo-Saxon, in origin. Even so, there is little but poetry where the Arthurian legend Contract with Amerikany whosever may and myth to connect Guenevere with Amesbury, whoever may believe in the exhumation of her body there in the time of Edward I. A theory of the working of dewponds is quoted which has been discredited by recent research. Beckford is not buried under the tower on Lansdown, but in the adjoining cemetery. The remarks on the old church at Bradford-on-Avon are cryptic; but the building is usually regarded as an example of the Romanesque style adopted by the Saxons before the Conquest. It is singularly like one of the "Seven Churches" at Glendalough, and cannot correctly be described as "the work of the Normans."

Mitchell (George H.). SAILORTOWN. Jarrolds [1917]. 7½ in. 157 pp. por., 2/6 n. 914.21

These papers mostly deal with the district of which the West India Dock Road may be regarded as the main thoroughfare, and with its inhabitants—British, Irish, Scandinavian, Indian, Chinese, African, American, Greek, Italian, French, Belgian, and Russian. "Sailortown" is practically synonymous with "Dock-land"; and "Chinatown," of which the author has much to tell us, is a growing colony within this curious and extremely interesting region. Of the Chinamen the author writes in favourable terms; but he does not like their "blind obsession for English girls—they will marry them if they can!" An old Warspite boy, ex-policeman (the "policeman-poet"), Baptist minister, and chaplain to the Mariners' Friend Society, Mr. Mitchell writes from a missioner's standpoint; but his book is of far more than specialized interest. He has much to say of the ways in which "Jack" is tempted and fleeced, and advocates patrols of women police in every dock and colony in Sailortown. One of the essays embodies a graphic account of a visit to the scene of the appalling explosion which occurred about a year ago.

Watt (Francis). CANTERBURY PILGRIMS AND THEIR WAYS. Methuen [1917]. 9 in. 304 pp. il. index, 7/6 n. 914.221-2 Mr. Watt treats of the murder of Becket, its causes and consequences; of the way by which the assassins rode from Saltwood Castle to Canterbury; of the honours paid to the relics and the shrine; and of the pilgrims and the various routes they followed, including not only that which is still known as "the Pilgrims' Way," but also the less familiar roads. A frontispiece in colour and twelve illustrations in monotone accompany the text.

920 BIOGRAPHY.

Benson (Maggie).

Benson (Arthur Christopher). LIFE AND LETTERS OF MAGGIE BENSON. Murray, 1917. 9 in. 452 pp. il. pors. index, 7/6 n. 920

The Master of Magdalene College, Cambridge, furnishes an intimate record of the life of his younger sister, whose temperament is portrayed as having been affectionate, but diffident, contemplative, and introspective. She had a wide range of interests, including Egyptology and Biblical criticism, and possessed an inner circle of devoted friends. Not at any time robust, Miss Benson suffered much from ill-health, and her later years were clouded by fits of mental depression.

Bronte (Charlotte).

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Wood (Butler), ed. CHARLOTTE BRONTE, 1816—1916: a centenary memorial prepared by the Brontë Society; edited by Butler Wood; with a foreword by Mrs. Humphry Fisher Unwin [1917]. 81 in. 330 pp. il. pors.

The essays here collected are from the pens of Mrs. Humphry Ward, Messrs. Edmund Gosse, G. K. Chesterton, A. C. Benson, and Halliwell Sutcliffe, Sir Sidney Lee, Dr. Richard Garnett, and others, and treat of Charlotte Brontë's novels, the home of the Brontës, Charlotte Brontë in Brussels, and kindred topics,

Brooke (Stopford Augustus).

LIFE AND LETTERS OF STOPFORD

Of the Pearsall), LIFE AND LETTERS OF STOPFORD Jacks (Lawrence Pearsall). LIFE AND LETTERS OF STOPFORD BROOKE. Murray, 1917. 8½ in. 2 vols. 360 and 376 pp. il. pors. index, 15/n. 920

Principal Jacks has ably traced the career of a man of notable independence of character and great natural piety. Holding Broad Church views which at the time were extremely unpopular, Stopford Brooke began life as a curate of a drab London parish, and became one of the most famous preachers of his day and a chaplain to the sovereign, but for the sake of intellectual freedom resigned his orders and chaplaincy, with all that this involved. He wrote several works which may be regarded as classics, including a biography of Robertson of Brighton, and attained a distinguished position as an historian and critic of English literature. Many of his letters are printed in these volumes, which form a worthy record of a virile personality.

Caxton (William).

Cunnington (Susan). THE STORY OF WILLIAM CAXTON (Heroes of All Time). Harrap, 1917. 7½ in. 191 pp. 9 il., 2 /6 n.

This is a vivacious and informative account of the man whose press at Westminster helped to effect a peaceful revolution destined to benefit all succeeding generations. Caxton's environment and the historic background of the period in which he lived are brought before the reader with some skill, and the book is a commendable addition to this series.

Charles I.

McKilliam (A. E.). CHARLES THE FIRST (Heroes of Time). Harrap, 1917. 71 in. 191 pp. 9 il., 2/6 n. The sombre life and tragic death of the first Charles are recounted in this book. The author has avoided controversy in regard to Charles's character, and given a straightforward and not unsympathetic narrative of the unhappy king's fortunes. On p. 164 "Althrope" should be Althorp.

Curie (Madame Marja Sklodowska).

Cunningham (Marion). MADAME CURIE (SKLODOWSKA) AND THE STORY OF RADIUM; foreword by Lady Muir-Mackenzie. St. Catherine Press, Stamford Street, S.E. [1917]. 70 pp. por. paper, 1 / n.

The substance of this interesting account of the gifted Polish woman whose name will for all time be associated with the discovery of radium was originally delivered as a lecture. The book deals first with the early training personal characteristics of Madame Curie, and then with the nature and results of her epoch-marking discovery. It is written for the general reader, contains a considerable amount of information within a small compass, and will be helpful in bringing to the "man in the street" a fuller knowledge of one of the greatest living scientific investigators.

natt (William). The Faith of a Farmer: extracts from the diary of William Dannatt, of Great Waltham; edited, Dannatt (William).

with an introduction, by J. E. G. de Montmorency.

Murray, 1917. 7½ in. 292 pp., 5/n.

The writer of this diary was a hardworking, progressive, businesslike, and successful husbandman, farmer of many acres, and author of the Farm Account Book, now in its wightly edition, and of the provided Hostoffee and the successful Husbandman. eighth edition, and of 'Practical Hints from the Notebook of an Old Farmer.' He was, however, also a religious mystic, inspired by a profound sense of duty and trusteeship to God, and, like St. Augustine and others, convinced that he had had a vision of immortal things. The diary (extending to about 270,000 words) was written during the three years prior to the author's death on Nov. 6, 1914, and extracts from it make up the bulk of the book. Faith, prayer, family life, harvest, and pain are among the subjects dealt with (often shrewdly and suggestively) by the diarist, whose language is carnest and direct. References to the War are naturally few, but they are pregnant. In the Introduction "Ostea" appears instead

Hodgkin (Thomas).

Creighton (Louise, Mrs. Mandell). LIFE AND LETTERS OF THOMAS HODGKIN. Longmans, 1917. 9 in. 459 pp. il. pors. appendixes, index, 12/6 n.

Mrs. Creighton has produced a sympathetic biography of this distinguished member of the Society of Friends, who, as scholar, historian, and antiquary, traveller, banker, and author of 'Italy and her Invaders' (8 vols.), 'The Dynasty of Theodosius,' 'Charles the Great,' 'Theodore the Goth,' and other works, passed a life as strenuous as it was many-sided. The book comprises numerous letters from Dr. Hodgkin, whose work gained him the friendship of Freeman, Creighton, Dr. (now Viscount) Bryce, Count Ugo Balzani, and other historians. There is a chronological bibliography of Hodgkin's writings. On p. 43 θεοηρτικόν should be θεωρητικόν.

Hyde (Douglas).

O Cobhthaigh (Diarmid), Douglas Hyde; An Craoibhin Aoibhin. Dublin and London, Maunsel, 1917. 71 in. 142 pp. por., 3/n.

As Dr. Hyde would no doubt himself desire, there is more in this book about the Irish literary revival, the Gaelic League (of which he was president, 1893-1915), and the long struggle for the resuscitation of the ancient language, than about the titular subject. The book gives a good summary of all these matters, and a brief account of Dr. Hyde's career; but the latter is so lacking in important detail that it does not state the date of his birth. We think that the author's estimate of Dr. Hyde's 'Literary History of Ireland' is too high.

Keats (John).

*Colvin (Sir Sidney). John Keats: His Life and Poetry; His Friends, Critics, and After-Fame. Macmillan, 1917. 9½ in. 616 pp. il. pors. col. front. epilogue, appenirx, 18/n.

Among the west notable chapters in this narrative of Keats's too short life are those treating of his relations with Leigh Hunt, Cowden Clarke, Haydon, Shelley, Hazlitt, Severn, and As is befitting in a volume professedly critical as well as biographical, large sections deal almost exclusively with the poet's work. Four chapters are devoted to the earlier poems and to 'Endymion,' and two others to the achievements of 1818-19. Many old errors and misconceptions are corrected, and much light is thrown upon the attacks in Blackwood's Edinburgh Magazine and The Quarterly; and incidentally it is shown that, deeply as Keats had felt the virulence of the reviewers, his last days were far less embittered by the injustice of the critics than by his enforced absence from his fiancée, Fanny Brawne. The life at Hampstead and the last sad phase in the Eternal City are well described. See the review in The Athenœum for December. 1917, p. 664.

Lister (Sir Joseph, 1st Baron).

*Godlee (Sir Rickman John), Bt. Lord Lister. Macmillan, 1917. 9½ in. 696 pp. il. pors. 5 appendixes, index, 18/n.

In this admirable biography of the great surgeon whose patient investigations, extended over many years, yielded results which have conferred inestimable benefits upon humanity, the author depicts Lister's early Quaker environ-ment, and his work at Glasgow, Edinburgh, and King's College, London. He explains his indebtedness to Pasteur, and, in one of the most interesting chapters of the book (the 27th), contrasts antiseptic and aseptic surgery. He also relates the circumstances which led to the foundation of the British Institute of Preventive Medicine, to be known later as the Jenner Institute, and now called the Lister Institute; and gives an account of Lord Lister's tenure of office as President of the Royal Society, a post in which he succeeded Lord Kelvin.

March-Phillipps (Lisle) and Christian (Bertram), eds. Some HAWARDEN LETTERS, 1878-1913, written to Mrs. Drew (Miss Mary Gladstone), before and after her marriage; chosen and arranged by Lisle March-Phillipps and Bertram Christian. Nisbet [1917]. 9 in. 382 pp. il. pors. index, 15/n.

This volume comprises letters from Ruskin, Burne-Jones, the late Lord Acton, Profs. James Stuart and Henry Sidgwick, Mr. A. J. Balfour, Sir George Grove, Mr. Alfred Lyttelton, and many others. The letter written by the Vice-Chancellor of Oxford to Mr. Gladstone during his last illness is also included, together with the statesman's beautiful and pathetic reply.

Markham (Sir Clements Robert).

Markham (Admiral Sir Albert Hastings). The Life of Sir Clements R. Markham, K.C.B., F.R.S. Murray, 1917. 9 in. 396 pp. il. pors. appendixes, index, 15/n. 920

Sir Clements Markham, Arctic explorer, traveller, Assistant Secretary in the India Office, prolific writer, and to the end of his life an enthusiastic geographer, rendered manifold services to his fellow-men and his country. No more than justice has been done to his memory in this interesting biography, written by one who was closely associated with him during a great part of his career.

Napier (Admiral Sir Charles).

Williams (H. Noel). THE LIFE AND LETTERS OF ADMIRAL SIR CHARLES NAPIER, K.C.B. Hutchinson, 1917. 9 in. 420 pp. il. pors. appendix, index, 16/n. 920

Among the more striking pages of this biography of a famous sailor are those relating to Admiral Napier's conduct in 1854, when he was Commander-in-Chief of the Baltic Fleet, and there is much in this section which is of special interest at the present moment.

*Retz (Jean François Paul de Gondi, Cardinal de). MEMOIRS; with an introduction by David Ogg (Everyman's Library, 735 and 736): vols. 1 and 2. Dent, 1917. 7 in. 452 and 357 pp. intro. to each vol., 1/6 n. each vol. 920

The first volume of this edition of the 'Memoirs' of the ambitious and worldly-minded Cardinal de Retz covers the period from the year of his birth (1613) to 1651. The second volume carries on the story to 1655.

Rolls (Hon. Charles Stewart) and Llangattock (Right Hon. John Maclean Rolls, 2nd Baron).

Morriss (Henry Fuller). Two Brave Brothers; with sixty illustrations. Richard J. James, 10-12 Ivy Lane, E.C. [1917]. 8½ in. 224 pp. il., 10/6 n. 920

An account of the lives and achievements of Mr. C. S. Rolls, killed in 1910 at Bournemouth in a lamentable aviation accident, and of his brother, the late Major Lord Llangattock, who gave his life for his country in October, 1916.

*Sichel (Edith). New and Old; with an introduction by A. C. Bradley. Constable, 1917. See 824.9 LITERATURE.

*Somerville (Edith Cenone). IRISH MEMORIES. Longmans, 1917. 9 in. 350 pp. il. pors. appendixes, 12/6 n. 920

A book of disconnected papers, comprising gossipy recollections of Ireland, Paris, Étaples, members of the author's family, and others. The titles of some of the chapters are 'Early West Carbery,' 'The Martins of Ross,' 'Of Dogs,' 'Mainly Maria Edgeworth,' 'Beliefs and Believers,' 'Horses and Hounds,' and '"The Irish R.M."

Vernon (Hon. William John Borlase-Warren). Recollections of Seventy-Two Years. Murray, 1917. 9 in. 404 pp. pors. il. appendix, index, 12/n. 920

The well-known Dante scholar who publishes these recollections of the years 1837-1909—that is, from the time when he was three years old—has lived a good deal abroad, especially in Italy, and come into contact with such people as the Guizots, Carlyle, and many notable Italians from the royal family downwards. He has a good deal to say about the making of Italy, the Franco-German War, and literary events, particularly in Italy. The appendix gives details of his Masonic career.

Wilberforce (Ven. Albert Basil Orme).

Russell (Right Hon. George William Erskine). Basil Wilber-Force: a memoir. Murray, 1917. 9 in. 184 pp. por. appendixes, index, 8 / n. 920

A brief, but appreciative memoir of the late Rector of St. John the Evangelist's, Westminster. Mr. Russell brings out his intense spirituality, affectionate disposition, and openness of mind upon a diversity of subjects.

930-990 HISTORY.

Archer (William). India and the Future. Hutchinson, 1917. 9 in. 328 pp. il. index, 16/n. 954

This volume is the outcome of a survey of Indian conditions in the years immediately preceding the War. Not essentially a book of travel, though personal experiences are introduced, the volume summarizes the views held by the author in 1914 regarding the relations between Great Britain and India. The text remains as it stood in August, 1914; but events that have since occurred have rendered necessary some

additions, chiefly in the form of a "postscript-proem," but partly in foot-notes dated 1917. In view of the loyalty and devotion of the princes, the army, and a great part of the people of India, at and since the outbreak of the War, Mr. Archer concludes that

"India as a whole, instead of trying to make additional trouble for England, or even looking on in sullen indifference, has claimed for herself the right of active participation in the affairs of the Empire, whether for weal or woe, and has gallantly shed her blood for its maintenance."

It is a pity that there has not been revision, or even deletion, of some passages in the text. In reference to certain of these the author admits that he would have expressed them differently, had he been writing to-day. The book is well illustrated.

*Duruy (Jean Victor). A SHORT HISTORY OF FRANCE (Everyman's Library, 737 and 738). Dent, 1917. 7 in. 548 and 577 pp. introduction, appendix, 1/6 n. each vol. 944

The introduction to this history is contributed by Dr. Richard Wilson, who describes the book as "the best, if not the only, short history of France available for readers who wish to gain a general conspectus of the nation's record." The present translation is entirely new, and is the joint work of L. Cecil Jane and Lucy Menzies. The appendix covers the period from 1871 to 1914.

Healy (Timothy Michael). THE GREAT FRAUD OF ULSTER.

Dublin, Gill & Son, 1917. 8½ in. 212 pp. bibliog. chronological table, appendix, index, 2/6 n.

941.591

These pages are intended by the author to give "a shorter, and, it is hoped, a less legal, setting to facts published for the first time some five years ago under the title 'Stolen Waters.'"

Hudson (William Henry). France: The Nation and its Development from Earliest Times to the Establishment of the Third Republic. Harrap, 1917. 9 in. 655 pp. il. front. maps, genealogical and chronological tables, index, 10/6 n. 944

A history of France from the period anterior to Cæsar's conquest of Gaul to the end of the France-Prussian War and the establishment of the Third Republic in February, 1871. The book is amply illustrated, and well provided with maps and tables.

Sabatini (Rafael). The Historical Nights' Entertain-MENT. Secker [1917]. 8½ in. 342 pp., 6 / n. 904

The well-known novelist and biographer of the Borgias dishes up thirteen famous episodes, such as the murder of Rizzio, the murder of Darnley, the massacre of St. Bartholomew, the affair of the Diamond Necklace, and Casanova's escape from the Piombi—in some instances following authorities closely; in others, as in the Darnley case, offering a plausible interpretation of the facts; and, in such a mystery as the murder of the Duke of Gandia, frankly speculating on his own account, but not without plausibility. The book, in short, belongs to a class of which Strindberg and Mr. Belloc have given striking examples. Apparently, it aims at being instructive rather than at any literary attractions. "Soradici" in the Casanova story should be Soradaci.

*Trotter (Lionel James). HISTORY OF INDIA, FROM THE EARLIEST TIMES TO THE PRESENT DAY; by the late Capt. L. J. Trotter; revised edition, brought up to 1911 by W. H. Hutton. S.P.C.K., 1917. 8½ in. 521 pp. il. pors. maps, index, 10/6 n. 954

Archdeacon Hutton has added two chapters to this revised edition of Capt. Trotter's work. Dealing with the vice-royalties of Lord Curzon, the Earl of Minto, and Lord Hardinge, and ending with a short account of the Durbar at Delhi in 1911, these later pages are noteworthy as treating of comparatively recent events.

Tweedie (Mrs. Alec). Mexico, from Diaz to the Kaiser. Hutchinson, 1917. 9 in. 320 pp. il. pors. chart, index, 16/n. 972.08

The author, an acknowledged authority upon Mexico and a personal friend of the late President Porfirio Diaz, to whose ability and bravery she pays tribute, endeavours in this book to disentangle "the knotted Mexican skein of the last ten years"; to set before her readers a picture of the present condition of Mexico in its political, commercial, and financial aspects; and to indicate the future possibilities of the republic. There is a grim portrayal of the state of the country, especially in the years 1914-16; and considerable light is

thrown upon German machinations in Mexico during 1916. The author, however, hopes that Carranza may yet come into the War on the side of the Allies.

*Ward (Sir Adolphus William). GERMANY, 1815-1890: vol. 2, 1852-1871; with sections by Spenser Wilkinson (Cambridge Historical Series). Cambridge, University Press, 1917. 7½ in. 604 pp. maps, bibliog. index, 12/n.

The present volume of this history by the Master of Peterhouse covers two decades, and includes the period in which the new German Empire was made—" mainly by arms and the man." The author reserves for the third volume a narrative of events down to the fall of Bismarck, as well as an indication of some of the currents of policy and action observable in the subsequent period of German history, and a notice of the literary and social phenomena of the beginnings of the new empire.

THE GREAT EUROPEAN WAR.

Borden (Sir Robert Laird). THE WAR AND THE FUTURE: being a narrative compiled from speeches delivered at various periods of the War in Canada, the United States, and Great Britain, with an introductory letter to the compiler, Percy Hurd. Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. 7½ in. 178 pp. por., 2/n.

These speeches on the reasons for Britain's entry into the

These speeches on the reasons for Britain's entry into the War, the part of Canada, the resources of the Empire, control of foreign policy, the new status of the Dominions, and other topics of the day, help the reader in Britain to appreciate Canada's attitude and Canada's immense services in the War.

Bowser (Thekla). The Story of British V.A.D. Work in the Great War. Metrose [1917]. 7 in. 300 pp., 5/n. 940.9

A clear account of some representative examples of the activities of the Voluntary Aid Detachments, including hospital dutics, air-raid work, and ambulance assistance.

*Buchan (John). Nelson's History of the War: vol. 18, From the German Overtures for Peace to the American Declaration of War. Nelson [1917]. 71 in. 280 pp. maps, appendixes, 1/6 n.

This volume is almost entirely concerned with political movements—peace manœuvres, the Russian revolution, the new Government in Britain, and the rupture of diplomatic relations by the United States. The only military events that take up chapters are the last phases of the Roumanian retreat and the clearing of Sinai and fall of Bagdad. A useful chapter is devoted to the situation in Austria at the death of the late Emperor, Col. Buchan coming to the conclusion that no separate peace is possible with the Dual Monarchy.

A Canadian Subaltern: BILLY'S LETTERS TO HIS MOTHER.

Constable, 1917. 7½ in. 128 pp., 2/n. 940.9

These are the home letters of a Canadian subaltern, "Billy."

They were written without any attempt at literary effect, but are animated and graphic in their portrayal of existence "somewhere."

Empey (Arthur Guy). From the Fire-Step: the experiences of an American soldier in the British Army; together with Tommy's Dictionary of the Trenches. London and New York, Putnam, 1917. 7½ in. 256 pp., 5/n. 940.9 An amusing and lively narrative in which the author, a

An amusing and lively narrative in which the author, a machine-gunner, vividly relates his experiences, and gives the reader a clear idea of what the soldier's existence is like in the fighting area.

Fifty Thousand Miles on a Hospital Ship; by "The Padre": a chaplain's experiences in the Great War. R.T.S., 1917. 7½ in. 284 pp. photographs, 3/6 n. 940.9

7½ in. 284 pp. photographs, 3/6 n. 940.9
The hospital ship in question travelled mainly between England and Alexandria, with occasional trips to Gallipoli during the fighting at the Dardanelles. The "Padre" describes his work on board ship in the homely, chatty way of an unpretentious letter-writer who knows that the most insignificant details will be welcomed by his correspondents.

A German Deserter's War Experience. Grant Richards, 1917.

7½ in. 254 pp., 5/n.

940.9

The author left Germany and military service after fourteen months' fighting in France, escaped into Holland, and eventually reached America. He gives terrible descriptions of the fighting in Belgium and at the Marne, an account of the inception of trench warfare, and a strange picture of how the Christmas of 1915 was passed in the trenches

*Gibson (Hugh). A DIPLOMATIC DIARY. Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. 9 in. 320 pp. il. documents, 7/6 n. 940.9

The Secretary of the American Legation in Brussels records here what he saw in the Belgian capital during and after the entry of the German troops; his experiences in Louvain when that city was burnt and pillaged; his extremely risky journeys with dispatches between the German and Belgian lines; his repeated interviews with King Albert and Queen Elisabeth; and his part in the efforts to save Nurse Cavell. Altogether, it is one of the most exciting, arresting, and interesting "war books" we have read.

Henderson (Keith), I.ETTERS TO HELEN: impressions of an artist on the Western front. Chatto & Windus, 1917.

9 in. 118 pp. il., 6/n.

The twelve illustrations included in this volume are some-

The twelve illustrations included in this volume are somewhat striking views, the colouring being decidedly pleasing. The letters are as good in their way as the illustrations.

Macfall (Haldane). GERMANY AT BAY; with an introduction by Field - Marshal Viscount French. Cassell, 1917.

8½ in. 318 pp. pors. maps, index, 6/n. 940.9

Major Macfall undertakes to instruct the "Man-in-the-Street" in the broad lines of "strategic," by which he means not merely the movements of armies as set forth on large-scale maps, but the whole situation regarded from the military point of view. Germany, he premises, had two plans for victory: an overwhelming rush at France, and the establishment of a Middle Europe as a bridge into Asia. The first was finally defeated at the Marne and Ypres; but if she can make peace retaining Serbia as the keystone of her bridge, she will have won the War. The author's exposition of the Allied strategy is engrossing. His reading of the events at the Marne is not essentially different from Mr. Belloc's, though he does not lay blame on the British for the failure to destroy the Germans completely. He pleads earnestly for no peace that will leave Germany in the strategic position she has aimed at securing.

Masefield (John). THE OLD FRONT LINE; OR, THE BEGINNING OF THE BATTLE OF THE SOMME. Heinemann, 1917. 7½ in. 128 pp. il. map, 2/6 n. 940.9 This is a descriptive itinerary of the historic battle-grounds, with brief incidental accounts of the great episodes associated the sound wish that Mr. Masefield would wish that Mr. Masefield would

with brief incidental accounts of the great episodes associated with certain spots. We could wish that Mr. Masefield would visit the other scenes of momentous conflicts, and furnish the topographical data indispensable to a proper understanding of the military events.

Middleton (Edgar), Glorious Exploits of the Air. Simpkin & Marshall [1917]. 7½ in. 256 pp. il., 5/n. 940.9 'The War Pilot in the Making,' 'Bomb-Raids,' 'Fighting the Zeppelins,' 'Air Raids! And Then?' 'Submarine Patrols,' 'With the Planes in a "Push,"' and 'The German Air Services' are among the topics with which the author deals in a well-informed and vivacious manner.

"On the Remainder of our Front—"; by Private No. 940. Harrison & Sons, 1917. 7½ in. 156 pp., 2/6 n. 940.9

A detailed and readable account of the everyday experiences of most infantry soldiers on the battle-front, written from the point of view of the private soldier. The author avoids "lurid descriptions of sanguinary fighting," and attempts "to fill in a small corner of the picture outlined day by day in the official account: 'On the remainder of our front there is nothing to report.'"

On the Road to Kut; by "Black Tab." Hutchinson, 1917.

9 in. 304 pp. 56 il. map, 10/6 n.

940.9

The account begins with the arrival of part of the Indian expeditionary force at the head of the Persian Gulf on Nov. 14, 1914, and continues to about August, 1916. The style is light and interesting, and a good deal of information about the country, the people, the marching, and the fighting is supplied in an incidental kind of way. Some of the faults of organization, especially of the hospital service, appear very clearly. There is no index or table of contents.

Ponsonby (Maurice). VISIONS AND VIGNETTES OF WAR.

Longmans, 1917. 7½ in. 128 pp. boards, 2/6 n. 940.9

A collection of seventeen short sketches by the Rev. M.
Ponsonby, Chaplain to the Forces, written between December,
1914, and October, 1917. Among the subject-titles are
'The Battle of Festubert,' 'Is God Almighty?' 'Christianity
the Religion of Cowards?' 'On Discipline,' 'The Angels of
Mons, and other Myths,' and 'A New Heaven and a New
Earth.'

Price (G. Ward). THE STORY OF THE SALONICA ARMY, Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. 71 in. 311 pp. il. pors. map, index, 6/ n.

The campaign of the British army in Macedonia is summarized at the beginning of this book, in which the author discusses the question, "Has Salonica been worth while?" describes the Bulgar attack on the 10th Division, the resurrection of the Serbian army, the retaking of Monastir, and the British battle of Doiran. He discusses King Constantine's attitude and the occupation of Thessaly, gives many examples of blundering and mismanagement, and deals generally with people, places, and things in Macedonia. In the final chapter Mr. Price reviews events in Albania.

Stebbing (E. P.). AT THE SERBIAN FRONT IN MACEDONIA; illustrated with photographs by the author. Lane, 1917. 7½ in. 259 pp. il. maps, 5/ n. Having been appointed transport officer to a unit of the Scottish Women's Hospitals, the author went out to Salonica, had ample experience of war conditions on the Serbian front, and gives a grim and vivid account of what he saw. The

book includes a description of the Kajmaktcalan battle-field,

and ends with the recapture of Monastir by the Allies in October, 1916.

Steege (Klyda Richardson). WE OF ITALY. Dent, 1917.
7½ in. 279 pp. front., 4/6 n.

This volume comprises striking accounts of life in the field, letters from Italian soldiers to their relations at home, and noteworthy pictures of the real and active part taken in the War by King Victor Emanuel III.

Stuermer (Dr. Harry). Two War Years in Constantinople: sketches of German and Young Turkish ethics and politics; translated from the German by E. Allen and the author. Hodder & Stoughton, 1917. 8 in. 308 pp. appendix. 6/n. appendix, 6/n.

Dr. Stuermer was correspondent to the Kölnische Zeitung in Constantinople during 1915-16. From the outset opposed to the War, he was finally estranged from his country by German encouragement of the Armenian atrocities. He threw up his post, took refuge in Switzerland, and writes with pro-British sympathies. His evidence tallies with that of Mr. Einstein and other observers, that the Turks have repeatedly been within an ace of complete disaster. He also thinks that the Turkish resistance is in its final phase, which "cannot last longer than the year 1917," and that this "will mean the decision of the whole European war"; though his optimism must be discounted by other statements. His account of the feverish efforts to Turkify the infidel, and impose the official language even on Germans, is amusing. There does not seem to be much love lost between the Teutonic and Turanian allies.

Varlez (Armand). Les Belges en Exil. Simpkin Marshall, 1917. 11 in. 296 pp. il. pors., 7/6 n. 9 An ably written and well-illustrated account of the Belgian activities in England since the German invasion of Belgium: patriotic, philanthropic, journalistic, financial, industrial, and connected with the manufacture of munitions. The record is extremely creditable to the representatives of the stricken nation who are sheltering in our midst.

Vernède (Robert Ernest). LETTERS TO HIS WIFE. Collins [1917]. 7½ in. 241 pp. por. introduction, 6/n. 940.9

Pleasant letters from the front, characterized by a note of simplicity, and dealing with the little things of the soldier's daily life. Mrs. Vernède has written the introduction to this collection of her husband's letters; and Canon Rawnsley contributes a sonnet.

The Wipers Times: a facsimile reprint of the Trench Magazines: The Wipers Times, The New Church Times, The Kemmel Times, The Somme Times, The B.E.F. Times.

Jenkins, 1918. 10 in. il., 6/n. 940.9

A curious series of reproductions of journals produced in the firing line, the humour of which will be specially appreciated by those with a first-hand knowledge of trench life and the actual conditions at the front. The "advertisements," the "matrimonial column," and "correspondence" contain some of the best things. contain some of the best things.

Yerta (Gabrielle and Marguerite). SIX WOMEN AND THE INVASION; with a preface by Mrs. Humphry Ward. Macmillan, 1917. 71 in. 377 pp. preface, 6/n. 940.9 It is of great if painful interest to compare the records of women eyewitnesses of the events which follow a German

invasion. Whether in Poland, Serbia, or France, much the same story is told of endless requisitions, perquisitions, and inquisitions; while in spite of obvious efforts to be impartial the portrait drawn of their temporary masters almost always reflects a type in which arrogance, conceit, and sensuality are dominant. It is but fair to add, however, that the Laonnais in 1915 seem to have been spared actual "atrocities." The main impression of this interesting book is one of triumph. The spirit of the ladies concerned remained unbroken under a thousand petty tyrannies, while their treatment of domestic difficulties, compared with which our much-bemoaned privations are indeed but trifles, compels admiration and respect. All who read the story will appreciate more highly than before the fine and gracious qualities which characterize the women of our closest ally.

J. CHILDREN'S BOOKS.

*Andersen (Hans Christian). FAIRY TALES; with illustrations by W. Heath Robinson. Constable [1917]. 9½ by 7½ in. 301 pp. il., 6/n. A reissue of the well-illustrated edition first published

in 1913.

Grayl (Druid). PILLOW-DUST DITTIES; illustrated by Helen Metcalfe. Oxford, Blackwell, 1917. 6½ by 7½ in. 65 pp., 2/6 n. J. 821.9° 2/6 n. Amusing nonsense rhymes about "the pigeon-toed pig," "the toucan and the tortoise," "a Zo-illogical dream," "the dugong and the seal," "the cat without the whiskers," and similar subjects.

*Grimm (Jacob Ludwig Carl and Wilhelm Carl). Lettle Brother and Lettle Sister; and other tales; illustrated by Arthur Rackham. Constable [1917], 101 by 81 in. 263 pp. il., 10/6 n.

In adapting from the German text the forty fairy stories in this volume, enriched by Mr. Rackham's beautiful illustrations, the publishers, by arrangement with Messrs. Bell & Sons, have made use of Mrs. Hunt's translation in "Bohn's Standard Library," which is stated by Messrs. Bell to be the only complete English rendering of the original with the notes and comments of the brothers Grimm.

Kabalensky (Madame). TALES FROM THE RUSSIAN; translated by G. Jenner. *Blackie*, 1917. 7 in. 126 front., 1/3 n. 126 pp., J. 891.73

Seven stories are included in the volume: 'Silver Dew,' 'The Crimson Toadstool,' 'The Nightingale's Notes,' 'The Violet,' 'The Pigeon,' 'The Butterfly,' and 'Princess Silly-'The kin.'

Lavington (Margaret) and Urquhart (Helen). CACKLES AND LAYS. Lane, 1918. 7½ in. 76 pp. il., 2/6 n. J. 821.9

Miss Lavington is responsible for the "lays," and MissUrquhart for the "cackles"—we mean the illustrations. Both are good.

*Ponsonby (Arthur and Dorothea). REBELS AND REFORMERS: biographies for young people. Allen & Unwin [1917]. 7½ in. 309 pp. il. pors. bibliog., 6/n. J. 920

Savonarola, William the Silent, Tycho Brahe, Cervantes, Giordano Bruno, Grotius, Voltaire, Hans Andersen, Mazzini, William Lloyd Garrison, Thoreau, and Tolstoy are the twelve great men whose life-stories are shortly told—and well told in this book for young people who are beginning to take an interest in historical subjects.

*Stuckenberg (Viggo). By the Wayside: little tales and legends; illustrated and translated from the Danish of Viggo Stuckenberg by Una Hook. Chatto & Windus, 1917. 9 in. 89 pp. introductory note, il., 3/6 n. J.839.836

Charming little stories, filled with the sense of open air and country life, and marked by a whimsical humour characteristic of the author. Dragons, trolls, peasants, and princesses people the pages of this fascinating book.

Taylor (G. Winifred). THE PEARL. Oxford, Blackwell, 1917. 8 in. 360 pp., 6/ J. F.

This tale of the school and Oxford life of a bright and reflective girl, who has a strong desire for "real" and not merely emotional religion, finds its goal in the discovery of the pearl, or gift of faith. Episodic in manner, it aims at showing in the effects of various friendships and other experiences the growth of a mind. It is likely to appeal specially to young women with High Anglican aspirations.

REPORT

OF A

JEPAUW LIBRARY

Conference on Rural Education

HELD AT

"Simonstone," Hawes, Wensleydale, Sept. 29 and 30, 1917.

PREFACE.

HE Conference was convened by Lord Henry Bentinck, Mr. Arthur Greenwood, and Mr. Arnold S. Rowntree, M.P., and to it the head teachers in Wensleydale were invited, together with a number of students attending evening classes. Those attending the Conference were present in an individual and not in any representative character. This Report has been adopted as a fair summary of the consensus of opinion. It does not necessarily represent the view of every member on all the subjects discussed.

I.—WENSLEYDALE.

THE "Green Dale of Wensley," one of the beauty districts of the North Riding of Yorkshire, constitutes the upper part of the basin of the River Ure, which eventually joins the Swale to form the Yorkshire Ouse. Uredale and Swaledale are almost parallel, in lines running nearly due east and west, and, though only from 5 miles (at Hawes) to 9 miles (at Leyburn) apart, the almost unbroken range of fells between them—rising in places to a height of 2,000 ft.—forms, socially and economically, as well as geographically, an efficient barrier. There are, however, passable moorland roads leading from Hawes, Askrigg, and Redmire

into Swaledale, and a good highway connects Leyburn and Richmond.

The chain of hills forming the southern boundary of Wensleydale is broken by numerous smaller dales, each making its contribution to the waters of the Ure, and each containing hamlets and villages, churches, chapels, and schools. How far removed from the stir of society these villages are it is difficult to convey to the townsman. Their isolation is imposed as much by difficult country (difficult from the traveller's point of view) as by their remoteness from large centres of population and from the railway. Most of them are anything from five to twelve miles from a railway station. Indeed, their isolation is in some cases so great that there are adults as well as school children who have not yet seen a train, and, before the War began, it was by no means rare to encounter children who had seen neither a soldier nor a

Wensleydale proper, from Leyburn in the east to Lunds, where the West Riding, the North Riding, and Westmorland meet, is about 22 miles long, and practically every school between the points mentioned was represented at the Conference.

The railway journey up the Dale is leisurely enough to enable the traveller to see the country. One conclusion to which he is forced is that "the Green Dale of Wensley" is no misnomer. For, after leaving Leyburn, practically no arable and is seen. All is pasture, stocked with

countless sheep and many cattle. And the rattle of milkcans at every station and the sight of barrow-loads of cheeses emphasize the fact that the staple industry of the Dale is dairy-farming and stock-raising. The majority of the farmers and stock-raisers are smallholders. As a rule, the more remote the district, the smaller is the area of the farms, and, generally speaking, the family of the holder find it possible to provide all the labour themselves. Hence most of the children are, at an early age, taught to milk and \$ to "fodder" the beasts. Indeed, the usefulness of the child upon the farm is a factor to be considered in any discussion bearing upon Education in the Dale.

The remoteness of many of the villages has already been mentioned. The remoteness from the schools of many of the outlying farms is an equally serious matter. The visitor to Dale schools can easily discover children who leave home at 7.45 A.M., and who during the winter months rarely reach home in the afternoon until after sunset, notwithstanding the earlier closing of the school. Home work on the farm and the long walk to school often almost exhaust a child before he begins his day in school. But a sturdier and more healthy-looking lot of children than those in Wensleydale it would be difficult to find, and in the cases where they commence the school day with untapped vigour they make ideal pupils.

II.—EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES.

(a) A list of the elementary schools in the district, together with the total number of children in attendance and the number over the age of 11, is given below. This will give some idea of the problems arising in this area. The schools having only one or two teachers are indicated. It is convenient to group the schools round three centres:—

HAWES CENTRE.

School.		hers		iles com	on ks.	Over 11.			1.14
School		No.	Hea	Maa	No. Bool	11-12	12-13	13-14	Ore
G Hawes, C*		-	\mathbf{M}	_	188	24	27	15	1
Widdale, C*		1	\mathbf{F}	34	17	1	1	1	-
G Lunds, C*		2	\mathbf{M}	6	65	7	11	5	1
Hardrow, C*		1	F	$1\frac{1}{2}$	32	3	6	2	-
Stallingbusk*		2	F	41	37	4	4	4	_
Bainbridge*		2	F	4	45	4	0	3	-
Askrigg*	• •	-	M	5	79	8	8	12	3
			,	Total	463	51	57	42	5

LEYBURN CENTRE.

School.	6	0	les E	Es.		14.		
School,	No	Sex	Miles	No. Bool	11-12	12-13	13-1	Over 0
G Leyburn, C* .		M	_	127	9	7	9	3
Leyburn, RC .		F	_	35	3	6	5	-
Wensley*	. 2	M	2	64	7	6	5	2
Bellerby	-	M	2	67	5	6	4	-
E Spennithorne .	. 2	M	2	54	I	8	6	1
E Constable Burton	2	M	4	37	5	4	I	-
E Hauxwell	. I	F	51	25	0	3	2	-
E East Witton .	. 2	\mathbf{M}	6	42	5	4	2	-
G Middleham .		M	21	117	5	14	8	6
Carlton		M	61	69	6	6	8	2
Horsehouse .	. 2	F	8	26	3	3	4	2
			Total	663	49	67	54	16

AYSGARTH CENTRE.

				liles fro Lysgart					
Aysgarth*		2	\mathbf{F}	_	35	4	5	3	-
West Burton*		2	\mathbf{M}	2	29	2	3	2	-
Walden, C		1	F	5	12	2	2	1	I
Cross Lanes*		2	\mathbf{F}	2	40	4	3	4	1
Bishopdale*		1	F	5	13	2	I	0	-
West Witton		2	\mathbf{M}	4	41	6	5	4	2
Carperby*		2	F	2	25	6	I	4	-
Redmire*	• •	2	\mathbf{M}	$4\frac{1}{2}$	52	6	7	3	-
				Fotal	247	32	27	21	4

(b) In this part of Wensleydale there is one grammar school for boys at Yorebridge, between Askrigg and Bainbridge. The school has about twenty pupils drawn from the neighbourhood.

(c) During the winter months a few evening classes are held in one or two of the villages of Upper Wensleydale. They are aided by public grants, but they differ from the ordinary type of evening class inasmuch as they are non-vocational in character, and owe their existence to the enthusiasm of a single individual, a teacher who, partly fired by what he had seen of the high schools of Denmark, settled in Wensleydale some six years ago, and began to start evening classes for young people of both sexes. The centre of this work is Askrigg with its neighbouring village Bainbridge, and at the former place a strong class of young men and women has existed for several years past, studying literary and historical subjects. But the work has extended into other and smaller villages round about, where the teacher often has a large farm kitchen full of an evening with an eager band of listeners and students of all ages. This movement, which is affiliated to the Yorkshire district of the Workers' Educational Association, is full of promise. The Askrigg class, in particular, contains a number of individuals who are ready for new developments when they come along,

C-Council School.

G-School Garden.

E-A school east of Leyburn, and therefore not represented at the Conference.

^{*} Represented at the Conference.

and have themselves already for some years past given an annual performance of Shakespearian and other drama, which has now become a regular institution of the village. All that is needed is more teachers of the right type, and the Dale might be full of evening classes carried

on along similar lines.

(d) There are flourishing literary societies at Hawes and at Leyburn. In each case the society organizes a series of weekly lectures for the winter months. Some lectures are illustrated by lantern-slides; some deal with musical subjects, and musical illustrations are provided. There is no doubt that these lectures fill an important place in the social and intellectual life in the two towns, but the variety of subjects dealt with must of necessity result in a narrow acquaintance with any one subject. During the Conference a discussion arose as to how a better use might be made of the lectures; and more will be said on this subject when the proceedings of the Conference are dealt with.

(e) Visitors to the Dale are always struck with the number of places suitable for holding public meetings that are to be found in most of the villages. There is the church, the chapel or chapels, the Church Room, and in most places a Reading-Room or Institute. In connexion with the Institutes there is frequently a library, usually little used and containing books musty

and antiquated.

III.—THE CONFERENCE.

On Sept. 28 and 29, 1917, an educational Conference was held at "Simonstone," Hawes. "Simonstone" was the shooting-box of the Earl of Wharncliffe, who at one time was the proprietor of much of the moorland lying between Wensleydale and Swaledale, and it makes an ideal place for holding conferences. Standing as it does some 200 feet above Hawes, it looks over a large expanse of Wensleydale, and from its grounds Widdale Fell and Oughtershaw, with the white winding moorland road that leads over into Wharfedale, can be seen. A mile away lies grey-stoned Hawes, with the neighbouring hamlets of Burtersett, Gayle, and Appersett clustered round it like chicks round a hen, and through the valley runs the winding, glinting Ure. It was on the lawn of Simonstone that Mr. Arnold Rowntree welcomed the members of the Conference on a brilliant September morning.

The gathering was an interesting one. There were the teachers who are working in the schools of the district; students who were attending evening classes at Bainbridge; the conveners of the meeting, Lord Henry Bentinck, Mr. Arthur Greenwood, and Mr. Arnold Rowntree, M.P.;

one magistrate, and two of His Majesty's Inspectors of Schools, but no reporters.

At the opening session it was agreed that a discussion on the difficulties experienced by the teachers in rural districts would probably be the best way of broaching the subject.

ISOLATION.

The question of the isolation of the teacher was raised, and it was generally agreed that this is one of the greatest drawbacks to the life of the rural teacher. Although a railway runs the length of Wensleydale, there are schools that are 6 to 8 miles from the nearest station and from 4 to 5 miles from the nearest school. It follows that there is little opportunity for seeing how other teachers are dealing with the many problems that arise, except at the sacrifice of time, money, and holidays. During the winter months of the year travelling is very inconvenient and at all times expensive. There is little inducement to go away at Christmastime when a three hours' journey in an open cart, over rough and oftentimes snowy roads, must be undertaken to reach the station, and when the holiday is marred by the fear that on the return journey the roads may be impassable. As a result Education Authorities have certain schools which are always difficult to staff. There are schools which serve a scattered area, and from which only one or perhaps two houses can be seen. There may or may not be a school house. If there is a school house, the loneliness of the mistress can easily be imagined. If there is no school house, there may or may not be suitable lodgings to be obtained in a farmhouse. An instance was cited of a teacher who was unable to get any accommodation at all in the neighbourhood of the school, and who had been compelled to take a small cottage, where she lived alone on the salary of a supplementary teacher.

The salaries of rural teachers intensify the effects of isolation. The further a teacher lives from the centre of social activity, the greater are the travelling expenses which he or she must incur. Moreover, the more isolated the teacher is, the more important it is that he or she should be able to travel during holiday times. The expense of travelling to the nearest towns, and the heavier burden of travelling expenses for holidays, render it difficult for rural teachers, whose salaries are notoriously low, to cultivate those wider outside interests which are so necessary a part of the equipment of the teacher.

It was strongly urged that Local Education Authorities should give these teachers opportunities for visiting specially selected schools during term time and should bear the expense. This would supplement the good work that might be done by a circulating library. The Education Authority should be responsible for the provision of libraries in rural districts, each large rural area having a central library with a paid librarian, the schools being the branch libraries, with the head teacher acting as assistant librarian. The library should cater directly for the needs of the teacher as well as for the needs of the ordinary reading public. Some means could be devised whereby use could be made of the village libraries which already exist, probably by incorporating them in the scheme, and supplementing the existing books by others from the central library.

Housing.

In most rural districts there is a shortage of houses, which affects the teacher as a member of the rural population. Probably the greatest difficulty at the present time in Wensleydale is that of the unmarried teacher who requires rooms, as the accommodation in most cottages is too small to allow for the addition of lodgers.

ATTENDANCE.

Irregular attendance is a real difficulty to rural teachers. There are times when it is impossible for rural children to get to school: days when the roads are feet deep in snow or when the heavy rains turn them into swamps. But, on the other hand, children are often kept away for trivial reasons, and the older children often stay away to help at home. The summer holiday always coincides with the hay harvest, the only time in Wensleydale when there is a stress of work on the farms; but there is much that a child of 12 or even far younger is capable of doing on a pasture farm, and however desirous the child may be of going to school, he is kept away to work. There seems to be only one remedy for this, viz., a stricter enforcement of the local by-laws. No complaint is made of the work of the attendance officers, who have a difficult and unpleasant task to perform; but their work should be supported by the magistrates, who too often inflict fines that are trivial, if they convict at all. A low average attendance has a further damaging effect on the school, since school supplies and teaching staff are based on an average attendance, and not on the number on the books.

MEANS OF LOCOMOTION.

In most rural areas there are a large proportion of children who have to travel considerable distances to and from school; but whilst the difficulties of bad weather are common to all rural areas, in Wensleydale there is the added difficulty of the wild and hilly character of the country. Heavy rains may mean floods; and snowstorms, deep drifts which make the roads impassable. Very frequently the children arrive at school in stormy weather extremely wet, and it is unfortunately too often the case that there is no adequate means of drying their clothes and boots. The mere distance, however, which many children travel is undoubtedly excessive, and the question therefore arises as to whether some means of transport cannot be provided. It was suggested either that the children in outlying districts should be taken to and from school in vehicles hired for the purpose (a practice which is not unknown), or that the Authorities should provide motor vehicles for this purpose, and for such other purposes as may be found possible. The proposal was made that rural Education Authorities should be supplied with the necessary number of motor transport vans, &c., from those now employed by the army. There is little doubt that there will be many claims made for the use of these vehicles, but there can be no claim stronger than that of the rural children.

NUMBER OF GRADES.

The number of grades taught by one teacher is probably the greatest difficulty the rural teacher has to grapple with. In this particular area 5 schools have only one teacher each, and 14 have only two teachers each. In the one-teacher school the mistress has children from 5 to 14 years of age to teach, and may have as many as 30 pupils altogether. Teachers know how much care and attention young children who are at the elementary stages of reading, writing, and arithmetic require if they are to be interested in the work and to be made keen on learning. When to two grades of these children are added children at seven other stages of their work, some idea of the difficulties that face the teacher may be imagined. She has to keep the children not merely occupied, but usefully occupied on work suited to their individual capacity. Of necessity the children become self-reliant and capable of doing a great deal of independent work. Still, it is felt that the older children do not get the attention that they deserve, and their curriculum is more limited than that of the older children in a town school. One member of the Conference, who had evidently given a great deal of thought to this question, outlined a scheme which in his opinion would work in Wensleydale :-

"The primary school should exist for children up to 12 years of age. In each group of primary schools a school should be singled out as a central school. To this school

all children of 12 and over from the group of primary schools should be conveyed. The central school should be spacious, well equipped, well staffed, and should have a domestic room, a work-room, a garden, and a playing-field. In order to keep a close connexion between the central school and the primary school, the curriculum and time-table should be decided upon by a meeting of all the teachers from the contributing schools, and each teacher should have a copy of the scheme to be followed. Meetings should take place at least once a year between the various head teachers, when questions of general interest would be discussed. By this means the child from the small school would have the opportunity of mixing with children of his own age. He would work with them and play with them, and would reap the enormous advantages that arise from healthy rivalry, which is absent in his own small school.'

The opinion was expressed that the small schools would suffer somewhat by the absence of the older pupils, who exercise a good influence on the younger children, and the children themselves would suffer as their responsibilities would be considerably lessened. But it was generally agreed that the advantages would enormously outweigh any disadvantages.

THE SCHOOL AND THE PARENT.

There were in January, 1917, twenty-five children over 14 years of age attending elementary schools in this district. To these must be added those who go to the small grammar school for boys at Yorebridge, and some few who make the long journey daily to Northallerton. This is clear proof that there are many parents who anxious that their children should have a good education. Some, however, are openly hostile to the work that is done in school. Others complain that children are being taught things that are not merely unnecessary, but useless. They imagine that nature study, drawing, and clay modelling are a sheer waste of time, and that a nature-study ramble is a way the teacher has of avoiding ork. Parents as a class, educated under the methods of a past generation, naturally fail to appreciate the changes which have taken place in the organization and curriculum of school life. It is clear, however, if the work of the school is to yield its fullest results, the attitude of the parent must be changed from one of misunderstanding and suspicion to one of co-operation and sympathy. Such change will, however, only be brought about slowly. "Open Days" have been tried with varying results. On these days the school carries on its usual routine, but at any time parents may enter and see how the school is conducted. Entertainments given solely by the school children create a momentary interest in one side of the work of the school, but from the point of view of stimulating an interest in the general school work it is doubtful if they are worth the trouble they entail. In some schools needlework has been a connecting link between

the school and parent, for this is a subject in which mothers are interested.

But before parents can be expected to become interested in the work of the teachers and pupils something more must be done by those responsible for the management of the school. Where managers visit the school only once a quarter to sign the registers, it is unlikely that parents are going to become really interested about the type of education their children are receiving and the progress they are making. If it could be brought home to managers how much difference their friendly, sympathetic visits would make to a teacher, and what an influence their appreciation of the merits of the school would have on the parents, the school might begin to take its right

place in village life.

How can the interest of the people of the Dale be aroused? A suggestion was made that a day in the summertime, before the busy season of hay-making begins, should be set apart for a "Day of Youth," which would be held at some central place. In its broader aspects the "Day of Youth" would be an annual festival focusing public attention on the intellectual and spiritual needs of the day. It would be the rallying-point for local patriotism and a means of expression of a new Dale consciousness, which would inevitably emerge as the festival became established. An important side of the "Day of Youth" would be the gathering of parents from the villages of the Dale, who would be able to see the kind of work done in the schools. The idea appealed to the meeting, and after much discussion a programme was sketched out. The halls in the village would be filled with the children's contributions, specimens of all kinds of work done in the course of the year. On the green folk-songs would be sung, and there would be maypole and morris dances. Pastoral plays would be performed by the older children, and exhibitions of physical exercises given. In addition there might be an exhibition of local pictures and of pictures by local artists, as well as of craftwork of one kind and another. At some time during the day there would be short addresses, intended to stimulate the interest of the Dale's people in the social possibilities of the Dale community. In these addresses the question of education would not be ignored. On the succeeding Sunday ministers of all denominations might take the opportunity of preaching to their congregations sermons appropriate to the occasion.

ADOLESCENT EDUCATION.

There are no evening continuation schools of the ordinary type in Wensleydale, and it was thought that something should be done, pending the establishment of compulsory continuation schools, for the children who leave school at 13 or 14 years of age, and who settle down in their own village. Many boys who have shown considerable promise as children in the higher classes of the elementary school, often lose much that they gained during their school life through the absence of any interests in the village which appeal to them. It was felt that much might be done by the development of troops of Boy Scouts and the provision of opportunities for taking up various forms of handicraft.

The lack of opportunity in the village was brought out by the remark of a student at the Bainbridge class: "If there had been no classes for me to attend, I should not have stopped in

the Dale."

The problem of providing suitable post-elementary school education in rural areas bristles with difficulties. Of the 7 schools in the Hawes district, the number who leave each year from each of four of them will be 4 and under. Suppose it is 4. In four years there will be 16 pupils, boys and girls, divided into 4 groups. The girls will require domestic work, and the boys handicraft. In some subjects, e.g., English, the boys and girls could be grouped. Obviously there must be two teachers. Apply this to all the rural schools in England, and the number of teachers required would be enormous. Clearly, some system of centralization would have to be resorted to. It would be impossible to hold the classes in the evening in winter, owing to the difficulty of travelling; and the summer months are the busy time of the Wensleydale farmer. We are left with the fact that the classes must be held in the daytime and from October to March.

The proposal to establish central schools has already been referred to above. If all children between the ages of 12 and 14 were accommodated in central schools, not only would it be possible to make more adequate educational provision for them, but, if it were found advisable, these schools might be used for compulsory

continuation classes.

In view of the difficulties of distance, the scattered nature of the population, and the seasonal character of the agricultural employment, it was generally felt that weekly attendance at continuation schools for all boys and girls between the ages of 14 and 18 would not be altogether satisfactory. A much bolder scheme was, therefore, put forward for discussion, and met with a considerable measure of approval. It was proposed that the annual period of training of 320 hours, which the Education Bill will make compulsory, should be concentrated, rather than spread over the whole year. It was suggested, therefore, that a residential school should be built to which adolescent students

should go for three months each year. One group could be in residence from October to December, and another from January to March. There might be considerable difficulties in arranging for attendance at the residential school between the months of April and September, though it might be found possible to have relays of students in residence even during these months. Should this not be found practicable, however, it was thought that during the six summer months such a residential school could fill a variety of purposes. It might, for example, be utilized as a residential country school for short periods for town children. It would, moreover, form a useful meeting-place for vacation schools for teachers and others, or for summer schools similar to those now arranged in connexion with Tutorial Classes at Oxford and Bangor.

It is interesting to note how such a scheme would work out in the Wensleydale area. Each year about 130 pupils leave the elementary schools. With the establishment of central schools, a certain number would, in all probability, stay at school until the age of 16. We might, therefore, take the number that the school would have to provide for as about 100 per year. After the first four years, there would be roughly 200 boys and 200 girls needing continued education. The girls might be at school before Christmas, and the boys during the three months following. If it were found possible to keep the school going the whole year for continuation purposes or, say, during nine months, the cost of the scheme would be con-

siderably lessened.

The general result of the proposals outlined with regard to adolescent education would be to provide a universal system of secondary education for all the children in the Dale. Better library facilities, and an improvement in the status of the rural teacher, which would enable him to keep his interests fresh and to take part in activities outside the immediate area in which he dwells, together with a larger interest on the part of parents in the work of elementary schools and the provision of adequate means of locomotion for rural children, would result in great advantages to the elementaryschool pupils. They would be better equipped when the time came for them to proceed to the central school. Between the ages of 12 and 14 central-school pupils would be able to pursue their education under far more favourable conditions than at the present time, and to lay a solid foundation for the ork of the residential continuation school, to which they would all proceed after the age of 14. Here, for three months during each of the succeeding four years, they would receive all the advantages of a ne

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regular and wholesome life, with physical training, intellectual and other studies, and corporate activities. If the whole scheme were put into operation, it is not too much to say that a generation hence the "Green Dale of Wensley" would have taken a long leap towards the development of a local culture of its own and of new social institutions and interests which would immeasurably raise the standard of citizenship in the Dale. But the full harvest of these changes will only be reaped with the provision of facilities for adult education.

ADULT EDUCATION.

The topic of adult education was left to the end of the Conference, and there was little time to discuss it properly. Moreover, the idea was new to a good many of those present. Yet all agreed that without facilities for adult education, any educational system devised for the Dale would be incomplete. One or two members of the Conference, who were students belonging to the classes referred to in II. (c), spoke of the great value which this work had had for them. And it is clear that if Wensleydale is to possess, as it might and ought, a culture of its own, some kind of education corresponding, though not necessarily identical, with that which we associate with the word University must be provided. Wensleydale is remote, but the doings and thoughts of the great world beyond the hills percolate through, and have been doing so with increasing insistence of recent years. Often they come in a crude form which is very disturbing to the minds of the young Dalesman and Daleswoman just grown to dim consciousness of their place in the general scheme of things. The world seems so wide, so free, so full of adventure; the Dale, for all its grandeur, so narrow, so cramping, so trivial, with its simple routine. It is this contrast which begets restlessness, emigration, sometimes moral disaster. And the only cure for it is the liberation, widening, and elevation of the mind which come through education—education conceived not merely as a preparation for manhood, but as the constant guide and companion throughout life's course. Adult education is a remedy, perhaps the only sound remedy, for rural depopulation. But it is more than this: it is the key to that local patriotism and culture, possessing which our country-side will contribute immeasurable gifts to the national spirit—lacking which it will inevitably fall, and that speedily, to cureless ruin.

The work which has already been done in and around Bainbridge is full of great possibilities. There can be no doubt that with the proper method of approach, men and women will

respond to opportunities for education of a non-technical character. In addition to classes dealing with social, political, and literary subjects, which are now growing so rapidly in most parts of the country, there should, of course, be adequate libraries as already suggested. The "Day of Youth" to which we have already referred would be an educational influence of considerable value. It is not extravagant to suppose that with greater facilities an increasing number of people in the Dale would throw themselves into social and public activities, and the pursuit, with their fellows, of intellectual, artistic, and other interests.

IV.—THE ATMOSPHERE OF THE CONFERENCE.

The Conference was "great"; all were agreed We were shy of each other at We did not quite know "what we were in for," and so isolated are the conditions of our lives that many of us had never met before. It was the first time all the teachers of the Dale had come together! But we very soon found our feet. During the two days we lived and talked together in this comfortable and beautiful home we grew into something like a little community, a community which we felt must not be allowed to die, since it held within it the promise of great things for the Dale. In the intervals between our general discussions we broke up into small groups, in which more intimate and personal matters were discussed-groups of patient plodders up to the "Buttertubs," many chaffing groups at mealtime, jolly rollicking groups at sing-song. And the groups were not cliques, they varied constantly in their composition; and since two days allow for a good deal of penetration and combination in a conference of thirty-six people, by the end of them we felt almost as if we had known each other all our lives. It was a community, small, but of great variety and with many possibilities. We had our representative of science, passionately desirous of instructing us all in the geology of the district, and scornfully indignant at those of us who were unable to distinguish the true buttercup from the false. He was our Roland as we stormed the press of the Buttertubs. Then there was our lady of common sense, full of home-truths which were apt, as we sailed amid the rosy clouds of vision, to bring us with a sudden thump back to earth and reality—disconcerting perhaps, but undoubtedly wholesome. We had, too, our young Wensleydale group, leaders in the sing-song, a little impatient with us temporizing, timid elders—impatience is the privilege of youthand very certain that the future lay with them, as it undoubtedly does. Our grizzled members eyed them good-humouredly from the height of their experience, and, wagging their heads, pronounced the inevitable verdict: "They are

very young!"

All this, and much more that was gay and pleasant, made up the surface of our two days' experience, beneath which strong and unforgettable things were taking place. This interplay of personality; this common facing of the problems which we had to meet individually—alone every day of our lives; this give-and-take of ideas and learning from each other; this living and talking and eating and walking in company, taught us all (some of us for the first time) the secret and value of fellowship, and brought home to us the old, old truth that problems can only be solved, since thought is only possible, things that matter only happen, when two or three are gathered together." And the crown of our new-found fellowship was, perhaps, the little, simple, informal service we held together on Sunday morning: a few prayers from the liturgy of the child-hearted child-lover, R. L. Stevenson; a few poems from the golden chapter of our literature headed 'Childhood'; a "sermon," wide-sweeping and impassioned, on the meaning of education, which struck clean through the tangled complexities of administration and method right to the heart of the matter. A little child was set in our midst; and we priests and priestesses of that great mystery bowed our heads in reverence.

The end came at last. Monday, with its insistent call to duty, grew nearer and nearer, and the party began to break up. How different were the hand-shakes at parting from those shy, reserved greetings which had begun the Conference on Saturday morning! We must do it again; this kind of thing ought to happen every year: such were the spoken and unspoken comments of every one of us. Thus there was a note of expectancy in our leave-taking. We had discovered how to get things done, we had formulated our programme, we had looked at our problem as a whole with all its interrelated parts, and the path that had led us to these exhilarating heights was the path of fellowship. And having tasted the blood of that communion, we asked for more and were determined to get it. It was au revoir with us all. A jovial party steamed in that absurd little train, amid the grandeur of hill and cloud, down the Dale from Hawes on a late Sunday afternoon, shedding individuals in ones and twos at each wayside station. Jovial, for were we not all to meet again? We had lighted a candle in Wensleydale which, by God's grace, should never be put out. And we had something in the nature of a bonfire

to look forward to—the Day of Youth! Der Tag we got to call it jokingly and affectionately before the end of the Conference. Der Tag is the heading of the next chapter of our history. May it be well writ!

V.—THE PROGRAMME.

The conclusions at which the Conference arrived may be summarized as follows:—

- 1. In order to overcome the effects of the isolation inevitable to the life of the majority of rural teachers, means should be devised whereby teachers might be able to travel to other schools and learn from the methods of other teachers, in term time and at the public expense. It was also considered of importance that teachers should have greater opportunities, by travel and otherwise, of maintaining and deepening their interests.
- 2. Public libraries, catering for the needs of both teachers and students, should be established at selected centres up and down the Dale.
- 3. The housing of teachers should be more carefully considered by the Local Education Authority than it is at present.
- 4. School attendance should be more strictly enforced.
- 5. Arrangements should be made for the conveyance of children in the outlying districts to and from school.
- 6. The upper standards from each school should be grouped into three or four new central schools in different parts of the Dale.
- 7. Interest in the work of the schools might be increased by:—
 - (a) a more effective system of management;
- (b) the institution of an annual Day of Youth, to be held at a central spot in the Dale.
- 8. Continuation schools for the adolescent, at which attendance should be compulsory, were a vital and urgent need of the district. The work would probably have to be carried on in the winter months, and accommodation might be found for it either in the central schools referred to above or preferably in a residential school for the whole valley.
- 9. The provision of education for adults, education of a more or less University type, was an essential element of any complete educational scheme for Wensleydale.
- 10. There should be an annual "Day of Youth" for the purpose of strengthening the common consciousness of the people of the Dale, and increasing interest in the common problems of the Dale.